

# The Nation

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THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1884.

PRICE 10 CENTS.

OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF LINCOLN PARK,  
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CHICAGO, April 4th, 1884.

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## CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK.....	305
SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.....	308
EDITORIAL ARTICLES:	
The Blaine Boom.....	310
Another "Anti-Monopoly" Decision.....	311
Clubs in Court.....	311
The University of Edinburgh.....	312
SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:	
Bismarck's Measures Before the Reichstag.....	313
CORRESPONDENCE:	
A Blaine Inquiry.....	314
Constitutionality of Legislation: the Precise Question for a Court.....	314
The Sale of Public Documents.....	315
America and Vespucci.....	315
The German Spelling Reform.....	316
NOTES.....	316
REVIEWS:	
Catharine II.....	320
Among the Cannibals.....	321
Philosophy, Theology, and Education.....	323
A Scientific Standard of Grain Values.....	324
Silvia Dubois.....	324
Memoir of Thurlow Weed.....	325
The Hessians.....	325
Record of Family Faculties.—Life History Album.....	326
The Field of Disease.....	327
An Outline History of Painting.....	327
Early Church History.....	328
Tables of European History.....	328
BOOKS OF THE WEEK.....	328

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1884.

## The Week.

THE vote taken in the House on the Trade Dollar Bill is probably the true measure of the present strength of the silver heresy in Congress, and of the attitude of the two parties in reference to it. The clause which required that the amount of silver in the trade dollars should be deducted from the regular coinage of two millions per month, was stricken out, on Mr. Bland's motion, by a vote of 131 to 118. The majority consisted of 112 Democrats and 19 Republicans, the minority of 37 Democrats and 81 Republicans. Three-fourths of the Democrats and one-fifth of the Republicans declared themselves to be still in favor of eighty-five-cent dollars. The division shows very clearly that the bill has no chance in the Senate in its present shape. It proves also that the Democratic party is as vicious and untrustworthy as ever touching questions relating to the currency and finance, and that the Republicans have made wholesome progress in the right direction since the passage of the Silver Bill. The Democratic idea that gold is only good for aristocrats, and that the poor man needs a poor dollar, is still firmly rooted in the councils of the party. This notion pervades the Irish section of the party especially. Gold is associated in their minds with England. With them all gold is British gold, and they fancy that they are showing proper contempt for their enemies in the old world by rejecting the standard of value which prevails there. This is a peculiarly happy Irish conception, and it fits in very well with the notion that a man who works for wages is entitled to have eighty-five cents when he has earned a dollar.

Notwithstanding the adverse majority in the House of Representatives, it is plain that the movement initiated by the New York Chamber of Commerce a few weeks since in favor of a suspension of the silver coinage has had an important effect throughout the country. It has been followed by similar action in St. Louis, Galveston, and many other less important trade centres. It has drawn attention to an evil of the first magnitude, and led to renewed discussion of the silver question in the press. Even the *Chicago Tribune* has been moved to say that we have silver dollars enough for present needs, and that the coinage ought to be suspended until other nations show a disposition to cooperate with us in the interest of bi-metallism. The colloquy between Belford and Kelley while the Trade Dollar Bill was pending, was extremely entertaining. The Colorado statesman planted himself on strictly protectionist grounds, and demanded that the Government should continue to buy silver bullion in order that the producers of the articles might get a good price for it. He taunted Kelley with inconsistency and backsliding, and truckling to foreign influence, because the latter had introduced a bill to suspend the

coinage for two years. This was a poor return, in his judgment, for the favors shown to pig iron in the tariff. Mr. Kelley retorted that pig lead was as highly favored as any other pig in the tariff schedule, and that since lead was the residuary product of the silver mines of Colorado, of scarcely less value than the silver itself, no charge of backsliding could rest against him. Another member suggested, in all soberness, that a duty be imposed on foreign silver in order to secure the purchases of the American mint to the home producer. In the discussion of the bill, brief as it was, the opponents of the silver coinage had a very marked advantage. If a general discussion could be brought on, very important results might be anticipated, and the Republican party would certainly be the gainers by it. The timidity of their leaders in the Senate is pitiable in the extreme.

The much-debated Blair bill to "aid in the establishment and temporary support of common schools" has passed the Senate. It proposes to give during the next ten years sums of money, beginning with \$7,000,000, and running down to \$1,000,000, to the various States and Territories in aid of popular education. The share of each State or Territory is to depend on the proportion borne by those persons over ten years of age within its limits who cannot read and write, to the total number of such persons within the limits of the United States. But no State or Territory is to get any of the money which does not itself expend on education during the first five years a sum equal to one-third of the amount received from the United States, and during the last five years a sum equal to that amount. There seems to be no reason for the bill except the fact that there is in some States much illiteracy with which the local authorities do not try to cope effectually, and that there is in the United States Treasury a good deal of surplus money. That the distribution will cease at the end of ten years, we have no expectation. We are probably witnessing in this bill the beginning of the assumption by the general Government of the whole care of popular education. For nothing is more certain than that the local sense of responsibility about popular education, and willingness to make sacrifices for it, will be steadily weakened in the very States in which it is most necessary they should be strong, from the first day on which the jingle of Federal school money is heard. The experiment is, therefore, a most momentous one. Its educational features are probably far less important than the political ones.

The Conference Committee of Independent Republicans have issued another circular, calling upon all persons who sympathize with the objects aimed at by the organization to send contributions of money to the Treasurer, Mr. Joseph W. Harper, jr., to be used in defraying the necessary expenses of correspondence, publication, and circulation of documents,

etc. They say that they propose "to take every proper measure to promote the nomination of a Republican candidate who is a satisfactory exponent of the progressive spirit of the party, and who would command the hearty support of independent voters." Speaking of the reform spirit of the time, the Committee say that it "has constantly proved its sturdy independence at the polls, even to the point of withholding its vote when its vote could not be given without infidelity to political honesty and to Republican principle." This is a frank statement of an undisputed fact, and it has been made many times lately in all quarters where independent sentiment finds expression. We observe that this frequent iteration does not meet the approval of the boomers, and in the *Tribune* of Saturday morning there is a feeling protest against further declarations of this sort. The *Tribune* thinks that hostile remarks about any candidate who has a good many friends will be likely to produce unpleasant feeling, and make party success difficult in November. It believes that when a candidate is supported by a good many sound Republicans who think his nomination desirable, the fact should be noticed with respect. "It is rather a bad habit," says the *Tribune*, "about nomination time, to declare that this or that candidate cannot be elected."

Yet, if we remember rightly, the *Tribune* followed this "bad habit" with commendable vigor four years ago by declaring almost daily, in reference to General Grant's candidacy, that, aside from the third term objection, it was folly to nominate him, since his election would be difficult if not impossible. Its steady adherence to this view at that time had great influence in defeating Grant's nomination. It took the ground then that it was much better to say, "about nomination time," that a certain candidate could not be elected, than to keep still about it and be forced to make the confession after the blunder of nominating such a candidate had been committed. That was a sound position then and it is equally sound to-day. The third-term contingent, the immortal "306," were a large body of what were called sound Republicans at that time, and they were relying for success on the same specious argument which the *Tribune* makes use of now, that "any man whom the voters of the Republican party, acting with reasonable freedom and through a fairly organized convention, honor sufficiently to select as their candidate, is exceedingly likely to be preferred by the people to the nominee of an effete, incompetent, reactionary, and essentially Bourbon Democracy." The peril of relying upon the effete Bourbon Democracy as a means of forcing the independent voters to support a man whom they do not like, was demonstrated in this State two years ago, and we do not believe the Republican leaders will venture to repeat the experiment this year.

The announcement is made that a conference of Democratic leaders is to be held in Balti-

more the last of this month for the purpose of reconciling the differences of opinion which prevail in the party and prevent harmonious action. There will be a banquet, and all the great men of the party are expected to attend. The plan is not new. It has been tried by the same party before, and with most unsatisfactory results. Somebody always upsets the harmony by telling the truth too frankly. The trouble is, that what the Democratic party needs is not a reconciliation of differences of opinion, but courage. An overwhelming majority of its members believe in their hearts in tariff reform, but only a minority have the courage to avow their belief openly. The rest of them have the curious notion, which no amount of defeat can destroy, that if they keep still on the tariff the people will regain confidence in their general ability to administer the Government. The news was sent all the way from Paris the other day, that Mr. Hendricks was convinced that the way for the party to succeed was to settle its differences on the tariff question. General Gordon spent several hours with Mr. Tilden, and announced to the country as the result of his talk that the Sage made no allusion to the tariff as an issue, but was sure the party could succeed by demanding "reform." A conference of "leaders" who have this kind of advice to offer will be pretty certain to leave the party in the same condition that it was before.

Mr. Dezendorf's testimony before the Sherman Outrage Committee on Monday did not contain anything especially new, but it served to put on record a concise statement of the evils of Mahonism. He said that the Mahone Readjuster Coalition, instead of securing free and fair elections, had the effect of making the elections more unfair; that the coalition existed solely because Mahone was known to have absolute control of all the Federal offices in the State, and that it would have gone to pieces in fifteen minutes if the support of the Administration had been withdrawn; and finally, that if Hancock and English had been elected, the whole Coalition party "would be in the Democratic party to-day—Mahone and all of them." Nobody can successfully dispute the entire accuracy of these statements. Mahone was merely a political speculator, a veritable Johnny or Mike, who went into politics because he saw an opportunity for doing a good stroke of business. He counted upon two elements for success, and he used them both without scruple. The first was the ignorance and blind partisanship of the negro vote, and the second was the unorganized but easily inflamed repudiation sentiment among the less scrupulous portion of the white population. By aid of the National Administration he combined these elements into a party which gained control of the State, stained its record ineffaceably with repudiation enactments, and sent Mahone himself to the United States Senate, where he offered his vote to either party which would give the best terms. That is the truth of Mahonism, and it is a lasting stain upon Northern Republicans that as a party they countenanced and encouraged it.

The riot in Cincinnati has, at all events, had the effect of stimulating the work of reforming the criminal procedure. The monstrous rule which enables the prisoner to exclude from his jury any one who has read about his crime in the newspapers, and has formed an opinion about it, has been abolished. The prisoner's twenty-three peremptory challenges have also been cut down to six, and the State's increased from two to four. In other words, the rights of the community in the prosecution of crime begin to be recognized. A blow should also be struck at technical objections. Most failures of justice occur through these. Judges ought not to be compelled to order new trials on points which the full bench does not consider to have any bearing on the merits of the case.

The rapidity with which "goelism," whether practised by mobs or individuals, affects manners, was curiously illustrated by the performances of a man in Cincinnati on Monday week, who tried in vain to catch a street car after dark. Failing to overtake it or to attract the attention of the conductor, he took out his revolver, and fired two shots at it. He probably reasoned somewhat in this way: "The management of these car companies has long been intolerable. They run too few cars, and their conductors are negligent and insolent. This fellow is not looking out for passengers as he ought to be, or he would have seen me. Complaining of him at the office, even if I knew his number, would do no good, for they are all thieves together. The courts, too, are corrupt and sluggish. I must therefore revoke the powers which I have delegated to the officials of this State and city for my protection, and must stop this car in the natural way in which cars were stopped by primeval man before states were founded." So bang, bang went his pistol. It is a pity, almost, that he should have been arrested before the conductor and the passengers had dissolved their connection with the State, and begun to pepper him in self-defence.

The proposal of the Secretary of the Treasury to meet the evil of undervaluation of goods by offering a fourth of the gross proceeds of the duties, fines, and penalties recovered to informers, will meet with the emphatic condemnation of everybody who remembers the working of this system in New York ten years ago, and who cares much either for commercial or official morality. The working of it as revealed by the Congressional investigation, both in the Dodge and other cases, was simply a national disgrace. Informing became a regular trade, and was pursued freely in order to extort money from the victims, either directly or by compelling them to employ certain lawyers, and Government officials met in conclave to divide the spoils wrung in this way from merchants of whose real innocence there was no reasonable doubt. Much of this money, too, undoubtedly went to swell the Republican campaign funds, just as the high salaries of the city officials help now to fill the treasury of the Democratic "balls." The whole system was, in fact, at every stage steeped in fraud and villany, and

fostered the worst passions of human nature. A revival of it would be a step backward towards barbarism. The true remedy, the rational and enlightened one, for undervaluation is, as Mr. Hewitt pointed out a day or two ago, the substitution of specific for ad-valorem duties, or the lowering of ad valorem duties so as to make the profit of fraud not worth the risk.

The decline in wheat and in railway rates has not led to any marked increase in the export trade, but has stimulated the interior movement of grain very decidedly. The distribution of flour, wheat, corn, and oats from Chicago to points between that place and the seaboard has been large and continues active. This must lead to a very considerable revival in general trade in the near future, but its effects are not yet apparent. The demand for dry goods is still sluggish and fitful. The iron and coal trades have relapsed into stagnation. The promise of settled spring weather which was given early in the week was later frustrated by snow storms, tornadoes, and bleak winds. The week closes with a listless tone in all departments of trade. Even the shipment of \$2,600,000 gold excited no remark, and the rates for money were not affected by it. Business at the Stock Exchange has hinged upon the report of an expected restoration of rates by the Trunk Line Pool. Diligent inquiry has failed to confirm the rumor. It is believed that the Erie Company made some efforts for an advance in rates, and ascertained that the New York Central was willing to cooperate, but that the Pennsylvania declined to accede to the proposal. The conditions which led to the reduction of rates being unchanged, there is obviously no reason for an advance. If the present rates are non-remunerative, any railroad is at liberty to decline the business. But an attempt to establish an advance within a week, or at most a fortnight, of the opening of lake navigation would be attended with almost certain failure.

The Union Club has had another row to deal with, and has suspended a member for five years for telling another he was a "coward and liar," or something of that kind. As usual, his friends are busily fighting against the sentence as too severe, and cite several cases where equally disorderly members got off with less punishment. It appears, from what they say, that one member, who used bad language to another a short time ago, got only three years; while another, who accused a member falsely of cheating at cards, was only sentenced for a similar term. The great Loubat-Turnbull case is still before the courts, and there are said to be several members whose way of life in the club keeps them constantly exposed to judicial pursuit before the Governing Committee. The public rumpus that all these Union Club scandals make, and their lamentably frequent recurrence, suggest the question whether there is not something radically defective in the club discipline. The penalties for drunkenness and disorder and quarrelling can hardly be severe enough, or inflicted frequently enough, or there would be fewer such cases. There must be a considerable number of members



whose walk and conversation make them distinctly unclubbable, and who ought to be watched in a lynx-eyed manner until an opportunity of getting rid of them offers itself. Suspension in such cases is no cure. A man who has to be excluded from a club of gentlemen, even for a week, for ruffianly behavior, surely ought never to have belonged to it, and suspension for three or five years is, accordingly, a little ridiculous. There are no degrees of gentlemanhood. A man is either a gentleman or he is not. If at the age of twenty-five he has not managed to become one, there is no use in giving him more time. It would be funny between individuals to tell a man, "You are such a foul-mouthed ruffian that I really cannot associate with you for one year from this date. Come to me on the first of April next, however, and all will be forgotten."

The *Tribune* on Sunday perpetrated a cruel joke at the expense of Mr. Matthew Arnold and also at the expense of the *New York Times* and the *Boston Advertiser*. It published what purported to be an essay from the pen of "Mr. Arnold" on the subject of Philistinism in Chicago, taken from the *Pull Mall Journal*. The article appeared in the *Tribune* of April 6, under date of London, April 5. It did not purport to have been cabled from London, yet it could not have reached New York in any other way if the date were correct. The essay was a fair caricature of Mr. Matthew Arnold's ideas, but its style was so widely different from his that no one familiar with his writings could have been deceived by it. The *Boston Advertiser* copies the article, prudently changing the *Pull Mall Journal* (there is no such paper) to *Pull Mall Gazette*, and inserting the prænomen "Matthew" after the word "Mr." The *Times* makes "Mr. Arnold's" solicitude for the reputation of "Obermann" in America the subject of burlesque. The *Tribune* has "got a rise" out of the *Times's* funny man, but it may be questioned whether the winnings of the game justify such a breach of good taste.

The conviction of Mr. Edmund Yates, of the *London World*, and his sentence to four months' imprisonment, is an exceedingly disagreeable thing for him, but the wonder is that it has not befallen him long ago, in spite of all precautions. The business of publishing social tittle-tattle in any community in which people are in the habit of resenting scandal in the courts, is always a dangerous one for an editor, for sometimes the most deadly bits of gossip are really the most innocent looking on the surface. What is called "society journalism," too, in England, is really kept going by people in society, who profess to be horrified by it. *Truth* and the *World* are largely supplied with their social gossip by gentlemen and ladies whom nobody suspects of it, and the temptation to them to stab an enemy must sometimes be overwhelming. In fact, the Yates misfortune is interesting mainly as an illustration of how the thing is done. The paragraph for which he is to go to jail was forwarded him by Lady Stradbroke, the young wife of a very old man, and doubtless

had malice at the bottom of it, and yet it had every outward mark of authenticity. Moreover, Lady Stradbroke was in the habit of sending in these things and getting paid for them. She experienced the supreme bitterness, it is said, when the libel was first exposed and before its source was known, of hearing her husband say, at his own table, that the author of it ought to be "tarred and feathered." One result of the whole affair will, doubtless, be to take a good deal of the spice out of society journalism. Contributors will be badly scared, and editors made over-cautious. There will be fewer paragraphs beginning: "What is this I hear about," etc.

Whatever may be the reasons moving the Government of Great Britain to recognize the sovereignty of Portugal over the mouth of the Congo and the regions adjacent thereto, they are not binding upon other Powers, and the ratification of the treaty seems more likely to bring up an international question than definitively to settle one. The ratification of the treaty by Parliament itself is uncertain, and the arguments brought against it by the Manchester Chamber of Commerce and other commercial bodies in the United Kingdom are of a kind to stir up opposition among all nations having, or expecting to have, commercial interests in the vast country discovered by Stanley and partially explored by DeBrazza. The Manchester protest contends that the declared object of the treaty, "to promote the development of commerce and civilization on the African continent," would be completely frustrated by putting the entrance of the Congo valley under the control of the greedy and unscrupulous cabal which constitutes the court of Lisbon. The proposed treaty is to remain in force ten years, at the end of which time the whole subject of rights, privileges, customs dues, transit dues, and commercial regulations of all kinds will come up for readjustment. But then Portugal will be in possession, and will hold advantages far greater than she now has, and will be in much better position to dictate terms than now. Her claims at the present time are based upon nothing but an alleged discovery made 300 years ago, which was not followed up by settlement and occupation, and which has, therefore, in the eyes of international law, been long since forfeited. This doctrine has been maintained by all English ministers, Whig and Tory, Liberal and Conservative, from 1853 to the present time, or until the pending treaty was concluded. What was good law for Great Britain during a period of thirty years is good law for other countries now. It may be assumed that no country which has any concern in the present or prospective trade of the Congo country will consider itself estopped from taking such measures as its interests demand, in consequence of any private understanding established between England and Portugal. But if Portugal takes possession, with the assent and concurrence of the first naval and commercial Power on the globe, she will probably remain in possession. It will not be worth while for France to dispute her claims; Germany has no interests to look after in that quarter; Belgium and Holland are not strong enough to do more than enter a protest.

The objections made by the Manchester Chamber of Commerce against the treaty are twofold: First, that commerce would be essentially strangled by Portuguese administration, in spite of all guarantees intended to secure its freedom; second, that Portugal has neither the energy, the means, nor the power to control effectively the large delta of the Congo and the native tribes. "Every move a trader makes in Portuguese possessions," says one of the greatest travellers and authorities on western Africa, "is checkmated by the extortionate demands of a host of needy officials, extracting 100 per cent. upon every article in the name of customs dues and fees." "The trade," he continues, "would soon be strangled, and the present lively movement of commerce would come to a dead halt. By her thirteen treaties with native chiefs on the Congo, by the millions of money she has already expended, by the professions she has always declared before the world that she will defend the natives, England is bound to support the natives against the possibility of this evil being established." The Manchester people affirm that this testimony accords with their own experience. It accords precisely with that of our late Consul in the Island of Madeira, Mr. Du Pont Syle, whose letter we published last week.

The confusion in Egypt, which has been seriously increased by the resignation of the one capable and respectable man left among the Egyptian politicians—Nubar Pasha—seems likely to result before long almost inevitably either in the evacuation of the country by the British, or the complete assumption of the government by British functionaries. Probably nothing staves this off now so much as Mr. Gladstone's shrinking—natural enough at his age, and in his present state of health—from new responsibilities. His heart is set on the reform in the franchise now before the House, and this probably accounts for the way in which affairs in Egypt are being allowed to drift. But they cannot drift much longer. The annexation, open or virtual, of Egypt is going to be very serious, from the difficulty of making the natives into soldiers. In India it has always been found possible, except in the case of the Bengalese, to make excellent soldiers out of the conquered population, but the Egyptian fellahs seem to defy all the professors of the military art to convert them into fighting men. They are probably the only genuine friends of peace in the world. Even Quakers fight if pressed too hard, but the fellah will die first.

There is probably too much importance attached to the occasional interruptions of communication with Khartum. The place is a thousand miles from Cairo by the river, and the river is beset by a more or less hostile force. But it must be remembered that this is probably the most irregular force, in the strict sense of the term, in the world. Some days it is probably large; other days it is small. Some days it is close to the river; other days it is away from it. Some days it is disposed to fight; other days it is lazy, or has gone home to attend to its private affairs.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

(WEDNESDAY, April 2, to TUESDAY, April 8, 1884, inclusive.)

## DOMESTIC.

In the Senate on Thursday the debate on the Blair Education Bill (which appropriated \$105,000,000 for education within the States) was continued. Senator Pendleton (Dem., O.) opposed it because he could not find in the Constitution any authority for such a bill. At a Republican Senatorial caucus on that day several amendments proposed by the Caucus Committee were approved by the caucus. Chief among them were propositions to reduce the aggregate appropriation to between \$70,000,000 and \$80,000,000; to make the money available only upon requisitions by the States under certain restrictions as to accountability, and to require its distribution to counties according to population and illiteracy. Senator Bayard (Dem., Del.) spoke on Friday in opposition to the bill.

The Senate, after a long debate and many amendments, finally passed the Education Bill on Monday night. In its final shape it appropriates \$77,000,000 to be distributed among the States in proportion to their illiteracy on the basis of the census of 1880, the payments of the money to extend over a series of eight years. The amount to be distributed the first year is \$7,000,000; the second, \$10,000,000; the third, \$15,000,000; the sums then diminishing at the rate of \$2,000,000 annually until the eighth year, when all appropriations shall cease.

The House passed the Indian Appropriation Bill on Friday.

By a vote of 119 yeas to 126 nays, the House on Monday refused to suspend the rules and pass the bill of Mr. Converse (Dem., Ohio) to restore the rates of duty on wool provided by the act of 1867. Eighty Republicans and thirty-eight Democrats voted in the affirmative, and twelve Republicans and one hundred and fourteen Democrats in the negative. The protectionist Democrats in the House are very much disappointed, and declare that the hopes of success for their party in Ohio have been destroyed.

The House Committee on Commerce on Monday authorized ex-Governor Long to present to the Committee on Ways and Means the bill allowing the free importation of foreign materials to be manufactured into articles for the construction, equipment, repairs, outfit, or provisions of American vessels employed in the foreign carrying trade. The aim of the bill is to remove the discriminations against the American manufacturers which exist under the law allowing manufactured articles for use in shipbuilding to come in free of duty, by placing raw materials for the same purpose on an equal footing.

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads on Friday, by a vote of 8 to 2, resolved that it is inexpedient for the Government either to construct a postal telegraph or purchase any existing line of telegraph. The Senate Committee, by a vote of 4 to 3, agreed to report a Postal Telegraph Bill.

Governor Murray, of Utah, on Friday replied before the Springer Committee to the charges against him while he was Marshal in Kentucky. He attacked the character of his accusers vigorously, and made a detailed explanation of the charges, all of which, he said, were eight years old.

The Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds will present to the House a resolution which sets forth that whereas it has been specifically charged that the officers of the Government are in complicity with Brooklyn real-estate men in the matter of selecting a site for the Federal Building in Brooklyn, a thorough investigation into the matter is recommended.

Another Democratic House caucus has been called to consider a resolution requiring that the Morrison bill be recommended to the Committee, with instructions to report back,

before the 10th of January next, a bill reducing the revenue, by abridgment of both customs and internal taxes, to the actual necessities of the Government.

Arrangements are making for a meeting of the prominent leaders of the Democratic party from all parts of the country at the Mount Vernon Hotel in Baltimore the latter part of this month, for the purpose of bringing about a reconciliation between the divided factions of the party upon a number of important matters concerning the Presidential campaign.

Members of all the political parties in Minnesota met on Wednesday in Minneapolis and organized a "Minnesota State Free Trade League." The constitution declares in favor of absolute free trade, and pledges the members to neither support nor vote for any candidate for Congress or for the Legislature who is not pledged to free trade. The membership includes some of the most prominent party men.

The following is the vote on Wednesday for Governor in Rhode Island: Bourne (Rep.), 15,903; Segar (Dem.), 9,599; scattering, 15.

Municipal elections were held in Ohio towns on Monday. The Republican ticket was elected in Cleveland by about 3,100 majority. The bulk of the German and Bohemian vote was cast for the Republicans. The Republicans are elated over the result, and claim that it assures Ohio for that party in October. In Cincinnati almost the entire Democratic ticket was elected by about 800 majority. There were large Republican gains in German wards. The Municipal Reform ticket received only 800 votes. Reports throughout the State show that the Republicans gained in most of the larger cities. Indiana towns showed decided Republican gains.

In the Senate at Albany, on Monday night, the bill applying the Civil-Service Law to all cities of 20,000 or over was discussed. An amendment exempting firemen from the operation of the bill, was passed, 15 to 5; also one giving preference for employment in the civil service to honorably discharged Union soldiers and sailors, and exempting them from civil-service examination. As amended the bill was ordered to a third reading. The Anti-Oleomargarine Bill was passed on Tuesday, 25 to 4.

General Chalmers, of Mississippi, has written a letter advising the Greenbackers and Independents of his State to join the Republican party.

The bill requiring that in New York and Brooklyn all telegraph, telephone, and electric-light wires and cables be laid underground before November, 1885, was passed by the State Senate on Thursday. On Thursday Mr. Robb introduced a bill applying civil-service reform principles to the police of the cities of the State.

All of the Roosevelt city reform bills were ordered to a third reading by the Assembly on Wednesday.

Mr. Howe's bill extending to January 15, 1885, the time when the Prison Commission shall make a report on the prison-labor question, was passed by the Assembly on Thursday.

The N. Y. Superintendent of State Prisons, Mr. Baker, has sent a communication to the Senate with reference to the effect of abolishing contract labor. He takes strong ground against the act already passed, and argues that all other methods of employing prisoners that have been tried have failed to produce satisfactory results.

Cincinnati has regained its accustomed good order. The citizens are making efforts for better local government and administration of justice.

General Agüero and twenty filibusters secretly sailed from Key West for Cuba in the schooner *Shoters* on April 1. The revenue

cutter *Dix* started in pursuit, but failed to overtake them.

The schooner *Shoters* arrived at Key West, Fla., from Cuba on Sunday night and was seized by the Collector of the Port. The negro in charge said that he was engaged to pilot the *Shoters* to Cape Florida, and that on rounding Port Taylor Agüero, with a drawn pistol, told him that he must take the party to the Cuban coast. On approaching near to Cardenas, Agüero directed the pilot to land. This was done. The pilot then put to sea, but before getting clear of the land he saw an extensive fire, and thinks the plantation buildings were burned. The negro's story is doubted.

The First National Bank of St. Albans, Vt., suspended on Tuesday. The deposits amount to \$215,000, which it is probable will be paid in full. Unfortunate speculations of stockholders are believed to be the cause.

A destructive tornado visited parts of Ohio, Indiana, and North Carolina on April 1 and 2. Oakville, Ind., was entirely destroyed, and five persons were killed.

A combination of nearly all the barbed-wire manufacturers in this country has been formed to control the trade, to maintain remunerative prices, and, by having a common purchasing agent, to keep the prices for raw materials within proper bounds.

The will of Mrs. Anna Ottendorfer, which was filed in this city on Tuesday, disposes of property valued at about \$3,000,000. There are a great many large bequests ranging from \$5,000 to \$25,000 to various charitable organizations of this city. The bulk of her estate is left to her husband and children.

## FOREIGN.

The body of the Duke of Albany reached Cherbourg on Wednesday night, and was placed on board the royal yacht *Osborne*, which then sailed for England. It was landed at Portsmouth on Thursday with great ceremony. The body was borne to Windsor Castle from the station on Friday upon a gun carriage drawn by eight horses. A long procession followed. The Dean of Windsor awaited the procession at the entrance to the Memorial Chapel. The Seaforth Highlanders placed the coffin in the middle of the chapel. After a short religious service, the royal personages withdrew. A second funeral service was celebrated later. No one was present save the Queen, the Duchess of Albany, and the Dean of Windsor. The final services took place on Saturday morning at 11:30 o'clock at St. George's Chapel. The Queen and the Princess of Wales went from the castle through the deanery to the chapel. The Prince of Wales, the Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia, and the other royal personages assembled in the Memorial Chapel and marched in procession to St. George's Chapel. The Prince of Wales followed the coffin as chief mourner. The Dean began the services as the coffin entered the door. After several anthems the coffin was lowered into the vault. Throughout the services the Queen wept bitterly.

Mr. Gladstone made a powerful speech in the House of Commons on Monday in support of the Franchise Bill. He said it was a good thing for the state that the largest number of capable citizens should possess the franchise. He defended the extension of the franchise in Ireland as an act of right and justice. The bill passed its second reading by a vote of 390 to 210.

After a thorough discussion on Friday, the Cabinet decided against formally establishing a protectorate over Egypt.

Mr. Gladstone said in the House of Commons on Thursday that Gordon could withdraw from Khartum whenever he wished, but that the time had not yet come to order him to return. In the evening Sir Stafford Northcote moved an adjournment to discuss the Government's Egyptian policy. Mr. Glad-



stone said the object of the Opposition was to consume the time of Parliament and hinder the Franchise Bill. The motion was lost.

The *Pull Mall Gazette* (Liberal) on Friday said: "Egyptian affairs are fast drifting into anarchy, and through anarchy to annexation or war—possibly both. England must undertake the administration of Egypt. This will be a terrific burden, but the country must shoulder it manfully." It then urged the Government to assist General Gordon to establish an independent state at Khartum under his sovereignty. Earl Granville announced in the House of Lords that the Government were not prepared to send a military expedition to Gordon's relief.

Nubar Pasha resigned on Sunday the Presidency of the Council of Egyptian Ministers, owing to discord with the English officials and the unsettled policy of England toward Egypt. The rest of the Ministers threatened to resign. The bureaux are in a state of anarchy.

Nubar Pasha on Monday evening consented to suspend his resignation from the Egyptian Ministry until the English Government gave its decision in regard to the relative powers of the Egyptian Ministers and the English officials. The Khedive is supporting Nubar Pasha's right to the supreme control of the administration, and has urged Sir Evelyn Baring, the British Minister, to assent to the dismissal of Mr. Clifford Lloyd from the post of Under-Secretary of the Interior. It is the opinion of European officials at Cairo that a mixed administration is no longer feasible.

Sir Evelyn Baring has been instructed to try to arrange the differences between Nubar Pasha and Clifford Lloyd. On the other hand, it was reported on Tuesday that Nubar denies that his resignation is due to any such differences. It was also reported on that day that the British Government had urged General Gordon to vacate Khartum.

A Suakim despatch on Wednesday said: "Osman Digna is actively resuming the offensive, now that the British forces have withdrawn. He is attempting to cut off the friendly tribes about Handub and Tamanieb from water. The Sheikh Mahmud Ali is opposing him. It is likely that the difficulty will result in a battle." General Graham doubted the truth of this despatch.

Osman Digna was reported on Monday to be near Tamanieb with 1,000 men and boys who were willing to fight.

The roads beyond Berber are blocked, being occupied by rebels. The tribes between Shendy and Khartum are in open rebellion, and it is feared Berber and Dongola will be invested in a short time. Nothing has been heard from General Gordon for a fortnight.

Major Hunter has returned to Aden, having visited Berbera and Zeila, points in the Somali Territory, on the south shore of the Gulf of Aden. There has been some doubt as to the feeling of the tribes inhabiting that section, but Hunter reports that he found them well disposed towards the Egypt Government, although agitated, as was natural, over the condition of affairs in the Sudan. There will be no danger of trouble, Major Hunter believes, so long as the British gunboat is allowed to remain in that vicinity.

A motion by Mr. Justin McCarthy, that the condition of the Irish magistracy is calculated to destroy confidence in the administration of justice, was defeated in the House of Commons on Friday by a vote of 106 to 59.

The recent sudden removal of the convict Irish Invincibles from Irish to English prisons is attributed to the discovery of a conspiracy to destroy the Mountjoy prison by the use of dynamite. The Invincibles in the prison were engaged in clandestine correspondence with conspirators outside. Letters were found in James Mullet's cell which disclosed the plot. The prison warders were to be bribed with money from O'Donovan

Rossa's fund to convey an infernal machine into the prison. The story was denied by a Dublin correspondent of the *London Daily Telegraph*.

The police at Queenstown narrowly scrutinize the baggage of American passengers arriving on transatlantic steamers, in order to prevent the introduction of dynamite.

Mr. John Bright's health is improved.

The Secretary of the London Corn Exchange reports enormous stocks of wheat, barley, and maize in the waterside granaries of that city. Of wheat alone there are 454,000 quarters more than last year. Of oats, however, there are 108,000 quarters less.

Cambridge defeated Oxford easily in the annual boat race on the Thames on Monday. The day was unpropitious, and there were few spectators. The total victories now stand, Oxford 22, Cambridge 18; one dead heat in 1877.

Mr. Wilson Barrett, the actor, gave a brilliant supper and reception at the Langham Hotel, in London, on Wednesday evening, in honor of Mr. Lawrence Barrett, the American tragedian.

Mr. Edmund Yates, the editor of the *London World*, has been condemned to four months in prison for libelling the Earl of Lonsdale. The judgment has been respite pending an appeal upon a point of law. The origin of this libel suit was a paragraph in the *London World*, which, though it mentioned no names, unmistakably pointed to Lord Lonsdale as having eloped with a young lady of high social standing. Lord Lonsdale is married.

A fierce fire in Paternoster Row, London, on Wednesday night, endangered many of the publishing houses. The Religious Tract Society's building and the buildings adjacent were burned. The fire raged for four hours. About a dozen houses, mostly bookbinding and publishing establishments, were gutted. The famous old "Dolly's Chop-House" was destroyed. The heavy losses were covered by a large insurance.

The negotiations between England and Spain in regard to the proposed new commercial treaty are ended without agreement.

It was reported from Madrid on Tuesday that Mr. Foster, the United States Minister to Spain, had started for Washington to confer with his Government in regard to a basis for a definitive treaty of commerce between the United States and Spain. The despatch added: "It is absolutely necessary for Spain to improve if possible the material condition of Cuba. A formula may be found based on reciprocity, for the benefit of the Spanish colonies, without prejudice to Spain. The English West Indian colonies run a great risk of being shut out of the American markets."

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Prince Bismarck's organ) on Monday said: "By his physician's advice, Prince Bismarck renounces the control of the affairs of the Prussian Government, but retains the direction of imperial affairs. In this capacity he occupies a personal and untransferable position of confidence toward foreign Powers. Besides, foreign affairs are free from the friction so greatly connected with home matters."

The German Bundesrath has unanimously rejected the proposal that a responsible ministry be instituted for the Empire.

Emmanuel Geibel, the German lyric poet, is dead at the age of sixty.

Professor Virchow, after a minute inquiry, has been able to authenticate only one case of trichinosis in Germany, which was of doubtful origin. No case was traced to the use of American pork.

Gustav Richter, the German painter, is dead, at the age of sixty-one. One of his most admirable works is entitled "Jesus Reviving the Daughter of Jairus," which was

painted for the King of Prussia, and appeared at the Paris Salon of 1857.

Ignaz Kuranda, a well-known journalist, died in Vienna on Thursday at the age of seventy-three. For many years he edited the Vienna *Österreichische Post*.

Herr Scheffler, the editor of the Anarchist paper, the *Radical*, who has been under arrest for some time at Pesth, confesses that he was present at the meeting of Anarchists in Vienna when the murders of Detective Bloch and Police Commissary Klubeck were planned.

It is semi-officially asserted in Paris that the French will enter China and collect an indemnity from the Canton native customs.

The French expedition has started for Hunghoa. General de Lisle's column will operate on the left bank of the Black River and General Negrier's column on the right bank. It is reported that Lionvinloc will command the defence of Hunghoa, where there are assembled 3,000 Black Flags and 12,000 Chinese troops. It is believed that Hunghoa will be attacked on April 11.

M. Patenôtre, the new French Minister to China, will start for Anam on April 11 to organize a French protectorate over Anam and Tonquin.

In the Italian Chamber of Deputies, Signor Mancini, Minister of Foreign Affairs, stated on Tuesday that the Government had no intention of modifying the decision of the Court of Cassation requiring the conversion of the real property of the Propaganda into Italian rentes.

Signor Mancini stated in the Chamber on Tuesday that the question of the free importation of works of art into America would soon be satisfactorily settled. He thanked the American Minister and the artists who had so materially furthered the result.

At the Vatican it is absolutely denied that the Pope has written to the Emperor of Austria on the subject of leaving Rome, although it is not improbable that he will eventually do so.

The Irish Bishops will convene in Rome in September. The purposes of the gathering are represented to be similar to those of the Convention of American Bishops in 1883.

The Rumanian Ministry on Tuesday tendered their resignations in consequence of the hostile vote of the Chamber of Deputies on the Premier's proposal to fix a date to commence debate on the revision of the Constitution.

The White Cross steamer *Daniel Steinmann*, from Antwerp, March 20th, for New York, was wrecked on Thursday night, about ten o'clock, during a thick fog and storm, upon shoals off Sambro Island, Nova Scotia. Five of the crew and two passengers managed to reach the island in a boat. The captain and a boy passenger clung to the rigging and were rescued by a boat from the island. The steamer had ninety passengers, five officers, and a crew of thirty-four men. All perished except those mentioned above, making the total loss of life 120. The *Steinmann* was a large new steamship with four masts. The captain's story is that he mistook the Sambro light for Chebucto light. He is severely criticised. Eleven bodies have been recovered. Divers were at work on Monday rescuing the cargo.

The steamer *Newcastle City*, from Halifax for Boston, struck on a shoal on Friday, but managed to get off considerably damaged. On Saturday morning it was necessary to run her ashore at McNab's Island. Steam tugs and schooners removed her cargo on Sunday.

The Police Magistrate at Toronto on Tuesday, in the legislative bribery-conspiracy case, decided that there was sufficient evidence to commit the four defendants, Wilkinson, Meek, Bunting, and Kirkland, to stand trial on the charge of conspiracy. During the reading of the decision Kirkland fainted and was carried from the room.

## THE BLAINE BOOM.

A CORRESPONDENT, whose letter we print in another column, desires some explanation of what he considers the slighting or hostile references to Mr. James G. Blaine which so frequently appear in the *Nation*, and which he suspects must be, in some degree at least, the product of private malice. We think he is entitled, as are our readers generally, to some such explanation, and we shall proceed to make it cheerfully, starting, however, with the assertion that no editor or other person connected with the *Nation* in any capacity has, to our knowledge, had any difference, quarrel, or controversy with Mr. Blaine, or has ever received any injury from him whatever, or bears him any personal grudge. Whenever he is discussed in these columns he is discussed either as the holder of a public office, or as a candidate for a public office. Nor do we make any reference to his private affairs except when those affairs have, or appear to have, a direct and important relation to his character and claims as a public man. In fact, all our comments on him and his doings are due to the fact that we consider his reappearance as a candidate for the highest office in the Government, or any other, as an audacious proceeding, which can only be accounted for by supposing him to have an extraordinary and unwarrantable confidence in the popular forgetfulness. It is the duty of all those who do not wish to see the Republican party burdened during the canvass next summer with the hopeless task of whitewashing him, to set forth briefly, now that his boom is becoming so lively, the charges which he will have to answer before he can be elected to the Presidency. It would be lamentable indeed, and certainly disastrous, if the task prescribed for Republican journalists by the Convention should be not the discussion of great questions of public policy, like the tariff, or the civil service, or the railroads, or the currency, but laborious examinations of Mr. James G. Blaine's railroad transactions. We mean, as far as we are concerned, to avoid this, if we can, by taking up his railroad transactions now, before the bustle and excitement of the canvass begin.

The first of the charges is, that, in the spring session of Congress in 1869, a bill was before the House of Representatives which sought to renew a land grant to the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad of Arkansas, in which some of Mr. Blaine's friends were interested; that an attempt to defeat it by an amendment was made, and was on the point of being successful, and its promoters were in despair; that at this juncture, Mr. Blaine, being then Speaker of the House, sent a message to General Logan to make the point of order that the amendment was not germane to the purposes of the bill; that this point of order was accordingly raised and promptly sustained by Mr. Blaine as Speaker, and the bill was in this manner saved; that Mr. Blaine wrote at once to the promoters, calling attention to the service he had rendered them, and finally, after some negotiations, secured from them, as a reward for it, his appointment as selling agent of the bonds of the road, on commission, in Maine, and received a number of such bonds

as his percentage; that the leading features of this transaction appeared in two letters of his afterward made public, dated respectively June 29 and October 4, 1869.

Second, that he asserted at first on the floor of the House, with the view of covering up this affair, that the Little Rock and Fort Smith Road "derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State," and not from Congress; whereas the evidence subsequently taken by the Congressional Committee disclosed the fact that the road derived the value on which these bonds were based from the act of Congress of which Mr. Blaine secured the passage, in the manner above described in 1869; that he asserted on the floor of the House that the bonds he received "were bought by him at precisely the same rate as others paid," whereas the evidence showed that the bonds came to him as commissions on sales, which he secured the opportunity of making through his aid given to the work in Congress, and that he solicited this agency, basing his request on the aid so given, and that he paid nothing whatever for the bonds, the consideration being his ruling as Speaker and his subsequent efforts to sell them. What he did with these bonds—seventy-five in number—is uncertain; but strong, though not conclusive, evidence was produced going to show that they were taken off his hands at a good price by the Union Pacific Railroad (through the instrumentality of one Caldwell), which then also was in trouble. The investigation on this point was never pushed home, owing to the sudden illness which overtook Mr. Blaine in 1876.

Third, that Mr. Blaine in 1870 made an offer, as appeared by his own letters, to one of his railroad friends, Mr. Warren Fisher, of Boston, to sell him a half of one twenty-fourth interest in the Northern Pacific Railroad, immediately after Jay Cooke's contract "had been perfected, and the additional legislation had been obtained," he having, he said, come into control of this interest "by a strange revolution of circumstances"; that the amount of stock which this would represent, he said, would be \$425,000, and the number of acres of land "nearly 275,000." "The chance," he said, "was a very rare one; he couldn't touch it," but he offered it to Mr. Fisher for \$25,000; that Mr. Fisher accepted it, and paid the money, but for some unexplained reason the stock was never delivered, and Mr. Blaine subsequently returned the amount. This transaction was a very peculiar one for the following reasons:

It appears from acts of Congress relating to the road, none of which are of older date than July 2, 1864, that the authorized stock was \$100,000,000, with a land grant, estimated by the Commissioners of Public Lands at 47,000,000 acres, or 74,423 square miles. The line of the road was 2,000 miles long; and at the time of Blaine's letter to Fisher, it was, he says, being built on bonds at \$25,000 a mile, which would have made a bonded debt of \$50,000,000. Mr. Blaine, as member of Congress and Speaker of the House, must be taken to have known about the circumstances of the road, and, therefore, there seems no escape from the conclusion that his offer was based on the expectation that he would receive almost as a gift a share

in an enterprise dependent for its value on legislation in which he had taken part. Mr. Blaine's defence in the case of this transaction consisted at first of a denial that he had ever had any transaction with the road at all, but he afterwards rested on the fact that he had no pecuniary interest in the transfer, and that it was never actually made; yet, though this might be a defence to suit against him for a conspiracy to defraud purchasers of the stock, it does not affect in any way the nature of the offer. His relations with Warren Fisher were, in 1870, as appeared from the evidence, such that any favor done the latter, or gift presented to him, had a direct pecuniary value.

Fourth, that he obtained certain letters, which there is every reason to believe contained matter gravely compromising him, from a perfectly reputable witness, Mr. Mulligan, who was the proper and lawful custodian of them, after having vainly tried appeals to his pity, by pledging his word of honor to restore them, then broke this pledge, retained them by force, and subsequently read such of them as he pleased to the House in aid of his vindication; that this conduct, if not legally criminal, was such as no man aspiring to be the chief magistrate of a great nation ought to be even suspected of.

Fifth, that both his short service as an executive officer of the Government, and the various efforts he has made during the past eight years to keep the public in mind of him, have been sensational and theatrical, indicating a strong love of notoriety and an absence of the settled convictions, the sober judgment, and the steadiness of character which are needed to make him a safe occupant of any high or responsible administrative office; and that the means by which his booms are started and promoted, of which the manner in which his 'History' has recently been heralded and produced is a good example, bear too close an approach to the advertising devices of a circus or other public show, to make the candidacy of any person resorting to them anything but a humiliation for the party producing him.

Lastly, it seems to us emphatically the duty of the independent voters to repress in some signal way the rapidly growing practice of packing conventions under the personal superintendence of candidates for the Presidency. It is of comparatively recent date. It is only a very few years since Mr. Tilden excited the horror of the Republican press by taking charge of his own canvass, and starting a "literary bureau" to supply puffs of himself to the newspapers. Since then it has grown apace, and it now excites no surprise to hear that any candidate is actively engaged in using all his powers of intrigue, chicanery, and corruption to secure the election of delegates all over the Union, pledged either openly or secretly to act under his orders at the Convention, and, if casting votes for him will do no good, to cast them in such a way as to enable him to carry out any bargain or "deal" with any other candidate which it may have pleased him to make. The nominating Convention has already, through its size, as well as for other reasons, lost nearly all semblance of a deliberative body,



but it has not yet become wholly the product of "subsoiling" carried on by the various candidates themselves. In this art of packing conventions Mr. Blaine is now the greatest master in the country. His success would make this art almost the only one which American statesmen would hereafter cultivate, or would apparently need to cultivate. It is high time, therefore, that he and his disciples were made to understand that it is not by such little games that the Presidency is to be won.

#### ANOTHER "ANTI-MONOPOLY" DECISION.

SINCE the decision in the Granger cases, no more important questions relating to corporate property and charters have been before the Supreme Court of the United States than those involved in the Spring Valley Water Works case, recently decided. The material facts are as follows: The old Constitution of California provided that all laws relating to corporations might be from time to time "altered" or "repealed" (Const. Cal. 1849, Art. iv., Sec. 31). After the adoption of this Constitution various acts were passed by the Legislature authorizing the formation of water companies, and providing that the rates for water should be fixed by the municipal authorities of the cities and towns supplied. Under these laws, however, no supply of water was provided for San Francisco, owing, it may fairly be presumed, to the fact that no one cared to spend money for such an enterprise, if the price of the water was to be fixed by the people who used it. At any rate, in April, 1858, the city of San Francisco being in great need of water, an act was passed authorizing the formation of water companies, which differed from all preceding acts in the circumstance that the rates were to be determined by a board of commissioners, of whom two were to be chosen by the town authorities and two by the company; and, in case of a disagreement among the four, a fifth person was to be selected either by them or by the Sheriff, the object of this machinery being to secure an impartial decision. Shortly after the passage of the act the Spring Valley Water Works Company was formed under it, and has since that time spent a large amount of money in the erection of substantial and extensive works for the supply of San Francisco with water, the value of which depends of course entirely on the rates at which the water is taken. For twenty years these rates were determined by the board selected in the manner we have described. In 1878 a vacancy occurred, by the death of one of the Commissioners, which has never been filled.

In 1879 the State adopted the Sand Lot Constitution, which attracted so much attention at the time as the first confessedly communistic Constitution ever adopted in the United States. Article xiv., Sections 1 and 2, of this body of law is devoted to "Water and Water Rights," and provides that the rates for water used by any city or town shall be fixed from year to year by the municipal authorities. Under this provision the San Francisco Supervisors claimed the right to fix the rates to be charged for water by the Spring Valley Company, and

refused to appoint a commissioner to fill the vacancy in the board. The decision of the State Supreme Court was that the new Constitution abrogated the law of 1858, and this decision has now been affirmed at Washington.

The question involved in the suit, it will be seen, turned wholly on the power of the Legislature to alter and amend corporate charters. The Spring Valley Company maintained that it had, under the law of 1858, a right to the maintenance of the Commission for fixing rates. The city claimed the right to substitute for it a commission consisting of its own Supervisors. The fact that the change in the law had been made by a constitutional amendment was of no consequence; it might have been made by the Legislature just as well. Either under the Dartmouth College case the charter was inviolable, or else, under the power to alter and amend, the change was valid.

It was urged in behalf of the company that letting officers elected by the buyers of the water determine the prices which should be paid for it, was a violation of the principle that no man shall be a judge in his own case. The Court says in reply to this, that the Granger cases (*Munn vs. Illinois*, 94 U. S., 113), decided that "it is within the power of the Government to regulate the prices at which water shall be sold by one who enjoys a virtual monopoly of the sales." It was also argued that as the laws before that of 1858 for the formation of water companies, which provided that the rates should be fixed by the town authorities, were not accepted by the Spring Valley Company, and that of 1858, with a provision for a board of arbitrators, was accepted, it is to be inferred that the State contracted with this company not to subject it to such one-sided machinery. But the Court in reply to this lays down the following proposition:

"The Constitution of California adopted in 1849 prohibited one Legislature bargaining away the power of succeeding Legislatures to control the administration of the affairs of a private corporation formed under the laws of the State. Of this legislative disability, the Spring Valley Company had notice when it accepted the privileges of the act of 1858, and it must be presumed to have built its works and expended its moneys in the hope that neither a succeeding Legislature, nor the people in their collective capacity when framing a Constitution, would ever deem it expedient to return to the old mode of fixing rates, rather than on any want of power to do so, it found desirable."

It seems, therefore, to follow from this and the Granger cases that in any State which has the power to alter and amend charters, first, the Dartmouth College case does not apply, for a charter with which one of the parties to it can do what it pleases, cannot be a "contract" in the ordinary sense of the term; and second, that all that capital seeking investment, in such States has to rely upon is not the restraining power of the courts, and the clause of the Constitution relating to the "obligation of contracts," but "a hope" that the Legislature may not change its mind. Can the Supreme Court really wish to have it supposed all over the world that the power to alter and amend charters makes corporate property less secure than individual property, and that every

American Legislature reserving the power to alter or amend charters can alter the value of corporate property at discretion?

#### CLUBS IN COURT.

THE Loubat case, and a number of other recent club disputes which have been made more or less public, have drawn attention to club law and discipline, and promise to have an important influence in the development of club life in New York. Until within a few years club members who for any reason have been expelled from clubs, have generally refrained from taking their cases into court, partly, no doubt, because the nature of club quarrels is generally such that, in the full glare of publicity, they are apt to bring a good deal of ridicule and contempt on those engaged in them; partly because a man is very seldom expelled without good reason, and he, more than any one else, shrinks from inquiry into the facts; and partly also because to a man with whom his fellow members do not desire to associate, a club is of very little use. All clubs guard themselves against having such members by providing that a few black balls shall exclude a candidate from admission; and a member expelled for conduct which makes him disliked is obviously a more "unclubbable" man than most candidates who fall short of getting the requisite support for admission. Under ordinary circumstances the position of a club member reinstated by order of court must be anomalous and, in fact, almost absurd. From the way in which club quarrels now get into the newspapers it seems as if this dislike of publicity must be dying out, and as if a feeling were growing up that a court of justice were the proper and legitimate forum for the settlement of all such matters. The matter possesses a good deal of importance in New York, where a lawsuit of this nature may be protracted for years so as to involve both sides in enormous expense.

Most of the little law in existence relating to clubs is English, London being the great modern headquarters of club life, and the English courts have in the last few years had to pass upon several club expulsion cases. In two of these, members were reinstated. Both were decided by the same judge—Sir George Jessel—and explain very clearly the limits within which courts will interfere in matters of this kind.

In *Fisher vs. Keane* (L. R. 11 Ch. D. 353), the plaintiff, while engaged in a game of pool (one of the players being a guest of another member), got into a dispute as to his own sobriety. He was, as a matter of fact, intoxicated, but nevertheless became extremely angry at the fact being urged upon him by the guest, who appears to have been a man of little tact, as a reason for getting through the game quickly. He retorted by calling the guest a liar, on which the game was stopped and his conduct reported. By the rules of the Club, the Governing Committee, when "specially summoned for that purpose," could, by a unanimous vote, expel for conduct "injurious to the character and interests of the Club." The Committee at a meeting not called for the purpose, and by a vote which was not unanimous, expelled the plaintiff, and this too

without any notice to him, and without giving him any opportunity to be heard. Sir George Jessel reinstated him, both because the rules had been violated, and because the "ordinary principles of justice" had been violated in not giving him a hearing.

The case of Labouchere *vs.* the Earl of Wharnccliffe was decided on much the same grounds. Mr. Labouchere, the editor of *Truth*, was assaulted by Mr. Levy Lawson, a fellow-member of the Beefsteak Club, just outside the club house. Mr. Levy Lawson then went into the club, followed by Mr. Labouchere, and in the latter's hearing stated that he had just thrashed the editor outside. Mr. Labouchere wrote to the Committee complaining of this, and of Mr. Lawson's having used the club for the purpose of an "ambush," and of another member for having helped his assailant. The Committee thereupon notified Mr. Labouchere that a special meeting would be called to consider the case, and meantime that he must enter into an engagement not to attack any fellow-member in "any publication." The rules of the club provide that for any conduct, in the opinion of the Committee, "injurious to the welfare and interests of the club," the Committee may call upon a member to resign, and, if he refuses, they are to call a general meeting, which may expel by the vote of "two-thirds of those present." In this case the Committee decided to call upon both parties to the quarrel to resign. Mr. Lawson did so. Mr. Labouchere refused, for a variety of reasons, among others the rather amusing one that the club was attempting to establish a "press censorship." A meeting of the club was accordingly called, and Mr. Labouchere expelled by a vote of 77 to 38. There were, however, 117 members present. Sir George Jessel reinstated Mr. Labouchere on the ground that the rule requiring a two-thirds vote of those present had been violated, and also that there had been no proper inquiry by the Committee, no preferment of a definite charge, and no notice, no taking of evidence, no hearing, and not even any clear statement of the cause of expulsion.

These cases go no further than deciding that a court of justice will interfere to make a club conform to its own rules, and that it is part of the unwritten law of every club that a member shall not be expelled without a fair hearing of what he may have to say in his defence, and a fair inquiry into the facts by the club tribunal. But this does not mean, as might at first sight be supposed, the sort of hearing that a defendant would have in court. Club committees are not courts, and they do not administer justice, but social discipline, and the object of their existence is not to decide which of two parties to a club quarrel is in the wrong, but to prevent the club from becoming a bear-garden, as any club must become in which members are allowed to quarrel, to get up parties, and to publish "charges" against each other. In every case of conduct supposed to be injurious to the interests of the club, the club itself is the aggrieved party, and at the same time the judge and prosecutor. This has to be so from the nature of the case, unless the members are so fond of litigation that they prefer to have the affairs of the club administered

in the judicial way—something which no club rules ever contemplate.

The fact is, that the very worst plight a club can get into is when its discipline has to be overhauled by a judge, and the English judges have shrunk from the task, except in such extreme cases as those we have cited, when it has been forced upon them by the stupidity of the managers themselves. Of the thousand little details of conduct and behavior which may be injurious to the character and interests of a club, nobody but the club can properly judge, and, on the other hand, club privileges which have to be enforced by a sheriff are of no value to any one. Indeed, it may be gravely doubted whether the mere fact of taking his case into court would not in most cases warrant a committee in deeming a club member's conduct prejudicial to the interests of the club, though this precise question has not, we believe, yet arisen.

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.

On the seventeenth day of April, the University of Edinburgh is to celebrate the three-hundredth anniversary of its foundation. Invitations have been sent to the principal universities and colleges of the world to participate in the festivities, and among the scholars thus assembled there will be several representative Americans. In view of the event, the Principal of the University, Sir Alexander Grant (well known as the editor of the 'Ethics' of Aristotle, and for his services in the promotion of education in India), has prepared a history of the foundation, which has lately been published in two large octavo volumes, with numerous portraits and other illustrations. The record may appear to be a thrice-told tale. Crawford, who died in 1662, left behind him manuscript annals which were printed in 1808. Dalziel, another professor, who died in 1805, likewise left incomplete materials for a history which were edited and published in 1862. Alexander Bower published two volumes in 1817 and a third in 1830, which brought the story down to the date of his publication. But all these essays were very defective; only in the work of Sir Alexander Grant have we a satisfactory narrative of the growth of the University. Notwithstanding the author's apology for "the pressure" under which he prepared this "birthday offering," his work is admirably comprehensive and instructive. For reasons which we shall presently point out, it is of special interest to Americans.

In order to set forth the distinctive character of the University of Edinburgh, the historian first gives an account of the three Universities, St. Andrews, Aberdeen, and Glasgow, previously established in Scotland, all in the fifteenth century, upon an ecclesiastical basis which even the Reformation could not obliterate. Quoting Buleus, who said, in his 'History of the University of Paris,' that "a University without privileges is like a body without a soul," Grant shows that "founding an University" in those days was "something more than merely establishing a school with various branches of teaching: it was, in truth, setting up a little state within the state." The taking of a degree was "not a mere distinction to be obtained by a youth; it was a license to teach, not to be lightly conceded, but only awarded after full scrutiny, conducted in the most solemn way, by the highest authorities." With the reformation of the Church came neglect of University forms, and, as many have thought, decadence of University spirit. Universities, as distinct from colleges, had no life. Therefore, as in St. An-

draws, Aberdeen, and Glasgow the colleges had taken the place of universities, the University of Edinburgh was founded in the form of a college. In a paper of Queen Mary's, dated in 1563, Grant found a phrase—"our college and university"—which he mentions as perhaps the first instance on record of a college being identified with an university.

Some obscurity rests over the earliest history of the Edinburgh foundation, but a positive date is reached, April 14, 1582, when King James VI. signed a charter giving power to the Town Council of Edinburgh to provide for higher education, in humanity and the tongues, in philosophy, theology, medicine, law, and other liberal sciences. Thus, says Grant, "the municipal authorities and clergy of Edinburgh were entrusted forever with the absolute control of higher education within the burgh." For this novel arrangement there was one precedent, the Academy of Geneva, a modern and Protestant foundation, where from 1569 to 1574 Andrew Melville, the illustrious Scotch reformer and scholar, had been for several years a professor of humanity. On the 16th of October, 1583, the Magistrates of Edinburgh appointed a committee to devise the order of teaching to be kept in the college now erected. Wisely, as three centuries have proved, a course of strictly university study was adopted. The curriculum was divided into four sessions, in the third of which students were called determinands or bachelors; in the fourth, magistrands, because they were about to be made magistri, or masters of arts. The prescribed course differed from the mediæval degree system, says Grant, first, by making Greek an indispensable part of university study; second, by the spirit of humanism which it exhibited, great attention being paid to purity of style in Latin and Greek; and third, by its modernizing tendency, shown in the admission of the Dialectics of Ramus, the Rhetoric of Talmus, Hunter's Cosmography and Descriptive Anatomy. Instruction began in the winter of 1583-84.

We have already intimated that there are several reasons why this history is of peculiar interest to Americans. It is a limited history, having a formal and definite opening three centuries ago, not lost in mysterious mediæval conventual life, like that of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Paris, and of other institutions on the Continent. Moreover, it is the life of a Protestant University. The other three foundations of Scotland were established by papal bulls, and were based on the theory that they were parts of a great commonwealth of scholars, in which the Pope of Rome was the governor and head; but Edinburgh has no such Roman Catholic background for its annals. Again, it is emphatically a civil foundation, deriving its authority nominally from the Crown, and, in fact, maintained by the financial and official support of the Town Council. Once more, it is, like Harvard and Yale, an example of a college grown into a university. Often, in its nomenclature, the words college and university have been used indiscriminately, and its own alumni, like many American graduates, have confounded the two designations as if they did not know any difference of function. Besides all this, Americans for more than a hundred years have turned to Edinburgh for inspiration and instruction in science, in philosophy, in literature, in theology, and, most of all, perhaps, in medicine. Almost all the earliest professors of medicine in this country (as Dr. N. S. Davis has pointed out) were graduates of Edinburgh, and their Scotch alma mater was the model on which they formed the new medical institutions of this country. Four professors in the earliest of these colleges, at Philadelphia—Dra-



Morgan, Shippen, Kuhn, and Rush—had all been graduated doctors of medicine at Edinburgh prior to 1768. Doctors Bard and Mott, and we think Doctor Hosack, of the College of Physicians and Surgeons in New York, were likewise Edinburgh students. At the instance of Benjamin Franklin, the honorary degree of doctor in divinity was bestowed on Ezra Stiles, as far back as 1765, while he was a pastor at Newport, several years before he became President of Yale College. The like honor was subsequently given to Rev. Samuel Cooper (1767), Rev. John Lathrop (1785), and Rev. Chandler Robbins (1793). Early in this century, Benjamin Silliman went to Edinburgh to fit himself for a professorship of natural science, and there attended the lectures of Hope, Gregory, Murray, and Barclay. Two young graduates of Harvard, Rev. John Codman and Dr. John Gorham, were there his companions, and he mentions in his diary that about thirty of his countrymen, chiefly Southerners, were also attending lectures. At a later day, John P. Norton, the first American professor of agricultural chemistry, prepared himself in Edinburgh for scientific work. The philosophical writings of Dugald Stewart, Thomas Reid, and Sir William Hamilton long held their ascendancy in American colleges.

From its foundation onward, Edinburgh has been growing in honor and usefulness. Long ago it was called the Modern Athens. Stuart, the author of the 'Antiquities of Greece,' is said to have suggested this epithet because of the resemblance in the aspects of the two cities, and perhaps this circumstance has had its influence upon the architecture of Edinburgh. But certainly the spirit of Athens does not require for its embodiment an acropolis or a temple. Leyden is flat, and its buildings are tame, but its University is a worthy peer of its Edinburgh contemporary. We must look beyond the natural or the structural advantages of a city if we would determine the conditions of academic success. It would be an interesting inquiry what then made the youngest university of Scotland surpass its elders—what secured its position.

In addition to the work of Sir Alexander Grant, there are many volumes which throw light upon the character of the University. Among those which we recall with most pleasure is the Life of Edward Forbes, the naturalist, in which there are charming pictures of academic life. An institution which can claim Goldsmith, Walter Scott, Carlyle, and Darwin among its alumni, and can say that Niebuhr came from Germany to spend a year within its walls, is of no mean repute. It is pleasant to notice that in its three-hundredth year the number of students is greater than ever before, having reached an aggregate of 3,341, more than half of whom are in the medical department. Nearly one-third are in the department of arts, while the rest are jurists and theologians.

#### BISMARCK'S MEASURES BEFORE THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, March 24.

SINCE March 6 the Reichstag has been in session again. A few days after its constitution Bismarck returned to town, and took an active part in the proceedings. He has spoken on several occasions with an irritation which affords no good prospect for the peaceful settlement of affairs. The Chancellor looks much better than before, has grown thinner, and lost, as he says, a roebuck's weight, and seems to be more nervous than ever. His addresses are rather garrulous, going over old stories and old charges again and again, and treating his political opponents with a bitterness and disdain

as if they were his personal enemies. Contrary to his former custom, Bismarck punctually made his first appearance at the session of March 13, and delivered a long speech, in which he tried to justify his course in relation to the Lasker resolutions passed by your House of Representatives. When he rose, not twenty members were in their seats; but he nevertheless went on, and soon a very attentive audience had gathered before him. In the beginning he made a kind of apology to your Congress, and gave a retrospective review of the old friendly relations existing between the United States and Prussia. He then called the resolutions an act of respect and good will to the German Empire, which methodical opposition at home had tried to utilize for party purposes against his own person. I need not remark that the Chancellor's supposition that German members of the Reichstag were the originators of the American resolutions is wholly unfounded. "He who praises Lasker vilifies me and the Imperial (i. e., Bismarckian) policy," is the gist of his whole reasoning. His organs, let loose like hounds eager for prey, echo these charges in all modulations, and call the suspected deputies who signed the harmless address of thanks to the House of Representatives and Mr. Schurz (Messrs. v. Forckenbeck, Bamberger, Kapp, Rickert, Bunsen, and Schrader) traitors to their country and paid tools of a foreign Government. At the same time the Chancellor begged the House to avoid all personal attacks, and to transact all business in a gentlemanly manner. As in his speeches, so in his writings. The other day he sent an answer to some 169 working and "practical" men at Margrabowa (a little town in western Prussia, as important, for instance, as Buncombe), who had declared themselves in favor of his policy, asserting that the German originators of the American resolutions had usuriously availed themselves of the death of Lasker to attack the Imperial policy by suggesting them. You, who know the facility with which such resolutions are introduced and carried in your legislative bodies, are a much better judge of this frivolous insinuation than I am. Too much, however, has already been said about this Lasker affair, and it is to be hoped that the fact manifested at Washington in burying it decently will have made an end of all further animosities and troubles.

Last week the Reichstag discussed and referred to special committees two important bills. The one was the law of insurance against accident to the workmen of the different trades, and the other the further prolongation of the exceptional law against the Social Democrats. In former sessions the first has twice been rejected on account of its imperfections. It has a rather sentimental motive, as, in the words of Bismarck himself, the Administration does not want to profit by accidents and calamities. In its present shape the bill is rather worse than better, as the Chancellor's most highly trained coöperator has withdrawn, for the reason that the plan, if carried out, would lead to bankruptcy and ruin. Two young *Streber* (strivers) have taken up this job, and, in a few days, presented a new scheme, for which the younger of them was, of course, promoted at once. To benefit those who must insure themselves in institutions to be created by the Government, the bill proposes to do away with all private insurance companies, thus jeopardizing several hundreds of millions invested by the working classes and leading to the ruin of thousands. The bill in itself is of little consequence. It proposes to saddle the employers of our manufacturing establishments and trades with five millions of marks, in favor of their employees when injured in the performance of their duties. There is no dispute

about the burden itself, or its bearers, but more about the ways and means—how it is to be borne. This *how* has occupied the legislative power for years, and has led to the most passionate debates. The representatives of individualism try to attain the end in the same way in which all other similar schemes are realized under our present political and social organization. They further propose to fix by law the duty of employers to make whole their employees who have been injured in their service, and to treat this duty like any other civil obligation. Instead of this, which meets with no objection, we are confronted with a socialistic measure of the greatest consequence, which is intended by Bismarck to be a masterpiece of modern state socialism. An Imperial Insurance Board is to be created with almost unlimited powers, with branch offices acting under the central establishment, and the whole manufacturing interest is pressed into the scheme. The workmen themselves, in whose interest it is pretended that the contest is carried on, are utterly indifferent to the proposed plans, a fact which proves that the real object of the measure lies in another field. Bismarck tries to make political capital by socialistic experiments; but he finds no credence among the men whom he wishes to benefit.

What are we coming to if a highly respectable business like insurance is accused of being immoral? Is it disgraceful if a business flourishes? Is it a shame that important services rendered to the public yield some profit? Does the farmer who raises corn or wheat do it for God's sake? For appeasing the hunger of poor people, is he not entitled to at least his own living and some gain besides? Is it really revolting that the baker who bakes bread looks to his own profit also? The more general and urgent a want is, the providing for which is the basis of a man's business, the lower he stands, according to Bismarck's appreciation, in the ethical scale. To the farmer and baker succeed the weaver and tailor, the tanner and shoemaker, the architect and the house-owner. Next come physicians, who are so impudent as to make a living by curing their suffering brethren; and teachers, who make the ignorance of the child the basis of operations for their pay. If, however, it should happen that at the top of this Bismarckian ladder of morality stood a queer fellow who devoted his time and money to the manufacture of things which were of no use to any one, who therefore worked for no human need—him the new sentimental economy would feel bound to proclaim the most virtuous. You see we are approaching more and more the apostolic age—we are growing more angelic every day; and it will not be long before all business will be conducted on strictly evangelical principles.

In the opinion of the Reichstag's tribunes, three things are necessary to a general discussion in grand style, viz.: a three days' debate; one, if not two, speeches from Bismarck; and speechifying full of personal repartee and animosities, with but few or no real facts. At the discussion of the further extension of the anti-Socialistic exceptional law, none of these three characteristics were wanting. The debate occupied some twelve hours. Bismarck spoke at some length, but very irrelevantly; and his man Friday, Minister Puttkamer, confined himself to reading commonplace extracts from Socialistic pamphlets and manifestoes, beginning with Fourier and ending with Lassalle and Bebel, in order to prove the dangers threatening us from Socialistic propaganda. The measures, however, thus far taken have rather strengthened than weakened that sect. Bismarck likes, and has always liked, to have several strings to his

bow. In the present emergency it is much easier to have more arbitrary weapons, and to use them when he sees fit. Last fall, at the elections for the Berlin city representation, the exceptional law was set aside, and the Social Democrats, together with the anti-Semitic followers of Stoecker, were let loose on the "bourgeoisie." It was, of course, an innocent aristocratic sport!

The debate itself brought no new arguments. The real interest lay elsewhere. Bismarck had threatened to dissolve the Reichstag if it should dare to give a majority against the bill. He wanted to have the vote taken at once; but, instead of complying with his wish, the Reichstag referred the bill to a committee, which will require at least a month or more before it will be able to report. The Conservatives and National Liberals are in favor of Bismarck's plan; the Liberals are against it, and the Centre still stands uncommitted. The fate of the bill therefore depends on the vote of the Catholics. They want to make a bargain with the Chancellor. If he reinstates the Archbishop of Cologne—Ledochowsky of Posen is out of the question—or makes some other compromise satisfactory to them, they will of course vote for his pet measure. For the present they, as little as the other parties, are prepared for the new elections, and for this reason all the opponents of the bill have preferred to preserve the present Reichstag until after the holidays. In the meantime, something favorable may turn up for the Centre. If so, they will of course come to terms with Bismarck and save the bill; if not, the latter will be defeated and the Reichstag dissolved.

Another important political event of this month is the formation of the new Liberal party, composed of the former Liberal Union (so-called Secessionists) and of the late Party of Progress. Out of 397 members of the Reichstag it numbers just 100, and has all the elements of power and efficiency. This is a practical step in the right direction toward reconciling old minor differences and marching in one line against the united attacks of the Conservatives. The new party calls itself the German Liberal party. Its platform, embodying the just demands of the middle classes, can and will be endorsed by any liberal man. Thus far the National Liberals, who have dwindled down to forty members, have held aloof from their former brethren. In my opinion, they will be swept away by the next elections, and the larger part of them, led by political affinities, will go over to the Conservatives, while the smaller part will amalgamate with the new party. The Conservatives look at the latter with undisguised spite and hatred, for the reason that a united opposition will be a more dangerous foe to them than two or three split factions. The Conservative papers attack the new party with bitter vehemence, and are joined in their Samaritan work of backbiting and slandering by the Liberal milk-and-water organs like the *Kölnische Zeitung*. If the German Liberals had not known what their own interest was, the animosities of their adversaries would have taught them that they were on the right track. Their vote, although not yet decisive, in many cases will hold the balance of power. Besides their 100 members, the Conservatives number 74, the Ultramontanes 97, the National Liberals 40, the Poles, Alsace-Lorrainers, and Social Democrats each 15, the People's Party 10, the Guelphs 10, and the *Wilde* or *Savages* (belonging to no party) about 20 of the present House. To judge from present appearances, the next elections will turn out in favor of the German Liberal party. + + +

## Correspondence.

### A BLAINE INQUIRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At least two constant and admiring readers of the *Nation* feel regret at the tone of that journal in its treatment of Mr. Blaine—a tone which it employs toward no other prominent man. This regret is not caused by admiration for the ex-Secretary, nor by sympathy with whatever political aspirations he may cherish, for we have neither to any unusual degree. It arises, however, from the fear that the keenly satirical paragraphs in regard to Mr. Blaine's posing as a Presidential candidate are as much the result of personal feeling on the part of the editor, as of a real desire to expose what he considers the shallow tricks of a chronic Presidential candidate; and if this fear is justified, the regret is also justified, for we are jealous of the good name the *Nation* has gained.

In every mention made by the *Nation* of Mr. Blaine, whether in the discussion of his South American policy, his history, or his letter in favor of distributing the surplus revenue among the States, the same sign of dislike, of unconcealed bitterness, of unwillingness to make any acknowledgment of possible disinterested motives on his part, is plainly discernible.

Now, while there is honest difference of opinion in regard to Mr. Blaine's rank as a statesman, and while it may be honestly believed that he is planning to capture the Republican nomination for President, is it fair to presume that he is less patriotic, and that he carries into his actions and methods less disinterestedness, than do other public men? Why single him out as a person whose every action and utterance that happens to be told in print is to be twisted into evidence of his ambition and only another move in his campaign for the Presidency?

Cannot the several gentlemen who are mentioned as possible candidates for the Presidency be treated in the same way with equal justice? Cannot they all be accused of instigating the many newspaper articles that advocate their claims, and who can disprove such statements? What proof has the *Nation* that Mr. Blaine is acting before the American people, and is more designing than President Arthur, Secretary Lincoln, and others? If such proof is at hand, I submit that the paragraphs about Mr. Blaine could be strengthened by spreading the facts among the biting sentences. Now, however much these sentences may be admired as specimens of sarcasm, they are hardly convincing except to the prejudiced mind.

H. M. HOLMES.

LANSING, MICH., March 25,

### CONSTITUTIONALITY OF LEGISLATION: THE PRECISE QUESTION FOR A COURT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a common opinion that courts should declare laws unconstitutional when they think them so, assuming, of course, that the question is properly before them. In a sense this is sound; but in the sense in which it is generally held it is not. It is quite uniformly laid down that courts should not declare laws unconstitutional unless it is a very plain case, and it is put as strongly as this, viz., that the matter must be plain beyond a reasonable doubt. Thus, in the *Sinking Fund Cases*, 99 U. S., at p. 718, Waite, C. J., says:

"This declaration should never be made except in a clear case. Every possible presumption is in favor of the validity of a statute, and this continues until the contrary is shown beyond a rational doubt. One branch of the Government cannot encroach on the domain of an-

other without danger. The safety of our institutions depends in no small degree on a strict observance of this salutary rule."

Here we have a strong statement of the doctrine, and also the reason of it—the judiciary must not, even negatively, assume the legislative function. A like statement may be found readily elsewhere, e. g., in *Wellington et al. Petitioners*, 16 Pick., at p. 95 (Shaw, C. J.); and in *People vs. Supervisors of Orange*, 17 N. Y., at p. 241 (Harris, J.). In each of these cases the judge named is giving the opinion of the court. It is laid down by C. J. Cooley in this same form, in his *'Constitutional Limitations,'* \* 182, \* 183, as the established doctrine; and, among various citations in support of it, he gives the striking language of Washington, J., in *Ogden vs. Saunders*, 12 Wheaton, at p. 270. Having just said that the question was "involved in difficulty and doubt," Washington, J., goes on:

"But if I could rest my opinion in favor of the constitutionality of the law on which the question arises on no other ground than this doubt, so felt and acknowledged, that alone would, in my estimation, be a satisfactory vindication of it. It is but a decent respect due to the wisdom, the integrity, and the patriotism of the legislative body by which any law is passed, to presume in favor of its validity until its violation of the Constitution is proved beyond all reasonable doubt."

Taking it so, and taking the reasons to be such, what is the precise function of the judiciary in this class of constitutional questions? *It is not that of declaring the true construction of the Constitution, but that of deciding whether another department has acted unreasonably.* If the conclusions of the judiciary and of the Legislature differ as to what the Constitution permits, it is to be accepted that the judiciary are, for most purposes, to pass finally upon the matter. But to pass upon it how? To pass upon what? This is the question.

The office of the judiciary here is not that which, in some of our States, they exercise when they answer questions put to them by other departments of the Government: then, of course, they give their own opinion. Nor is it that which they perform in passing on such questions as were canvassed in the *Dred Scott* case, or such as might arise now under the Thirteenth Amendment—questions of personal right under the Constitution, irrespective of any legislation. Here also there is a simple duty of declaring the Court's own judgment upon the meaning of the Constitution. But in determining the constitutionality of legislative action, a court is called upon to consider what, under the Constitution, is the admissible view, rather than what is the right view of legislative power. The question before it is this: Has the legislative department kept within a reasonable interpretation of its power? Can their action reasonably be thought constitutional? Does the question of its conformity to the Constitution fairly admit of two opinions? If it does admit of two opinions, then the Legislature is not to be deprived of its choice between them; for this choice is a part of that mass of legislative functions which belong to it and not to the court.

Now, the common form in which courts put the question to themselves, viz.: Is the law constitutional? is a dangerous one. It is right if rightly understood, and if it be kept in mind that a Legislature, in construing the Constitution for purposes of legislation, may adopt any construction which is reasonable, and may reject the one which the court, in reviewing their action, may consider the sound one. A majority of the court belong, perhaps, to the strict school of construction, and a majority of the Legislature to the liberal school; but it is not a judicial question whether the strict or the liberal theory be the sounder,



The difficulty with this form of question—viz.: Is the act constitutional?—is that it steadily tempts the court into stating its own opinion on questions that may be purely legislative or political, instead of fixing its attention upon the precise judicial function, that, namely, of determining whether the Legislature has transgressed the limits of reasonable interpretation. One may see, I think, an illustration of the danger of this form of question in the language of Bradley, J., in the Civil Rights Cases, 109 U.S., at pp. 9 and 10:

"Are these sections constitutional? . . . Has Congress constitutional power to make such a law? . . . We have carefully considered those arguments, . . . and have felt in all its force the weight of authority which always invests a law that Congress deems itself competent to pass. But the responsibility of an independent judgment is now thrown upon this Court; and we are bound to exercise it according to the best lights we have."

The words that I have underscored (occurring in a very able and sound judgment) seem, as I venture to think, to point to an erroneous view of the court's functions. We are not without analogies to help us in stating the right question, for the situation is not in all respects a new one. It is much the same situation as that in which a court finds itself when it revises the action of a jury or of a lower court in deciding questions of fact. Nothing is better settled than the rule in such cases; and yet, it may be remarked, here, also, courts occasionally err from inadvertence to the precise question. What is that question? Lord Blackburn touched it neatly last year in the House of Lords in the case of *The Capital and Counties Bank vs. Henty*, 7 App. Cases, at p. 776. He was laying down a doctrine in libel, that although the jury may find the defendant chargeable, yet the court, on a motion in arrest of judgment, may still hold the writing not to be a libel; since Fox's Act the jury must, indeed, have a chance at the question, but Fox's Act, he says, did not deprive the defendant of his old right to have the court pass on it also; the defendant has now a double protection. And Lord Blackburn goes on to:

"Now it seems to me that when the court come to decide whether a particular set of words published under particular circumstances are or are not libellous, they have to decide a very different question from that which they have to decide when determining whether another tribunal, whether a jury or another set of judges, might, not unreasonably, hold such words to be libellous."

This passage illustrates perfectly the difference between a case where the court has to exercise an "independent judgment," and a case where it merely passes on the reasonableness of the exercise of judgment by another body. The doctrine in this application of it is familiar in our own courts, and authorities need not be quoted. I observe so neat a statement of it in the latest stage of the famous case of *Belt vs. Lawes*, in England, that I will quote a few words from the judgment of the Master of the Rolls. Belt, it may be remembered, recovered last year £5,000. On a motion for a new trial, on the ground that the damages were excessive, they were reduced to £500. Both parties appealed, and lately (*London Times*, March 18, 1884, p. 3) the Court of Appeal has unanimously refused to disturb the original verdict. The language of Sir William Brett, to which I allude, is this:

"The ultimate question for decision here is whether the original verdict can, according to the rule, be impeached. It can only be so if . . . the Court is enabled judicially to say that the evidence is so clear to the contrary of the verdict that reasonable men could not fairly find as the jury have done. . . . It has been said, indeed, that the difference between the rule and the question whether the judges would have decided the same way as the jury, is evanescent, and that the solution of both depends

on the opinion of the judges. The last part of the observation is true, but the mode in which the subject is approached makes the greatest difference. To ask, 'Should we have found the same verdict?' is surely not the same thing as to ask whether there is room for a reasonable difference of opinion. The ultimate question being thus defined, the next inquiry is," etc.

In the class of constitutional questions, then, to which I am specially referring, it would seem that the function of the court is not that of fixing the construction of the Constitution which it believes to be the sound one, but that of determining whether another body, charged with an independent function which incidentally requires it to put a construction upon the Constitution, has discharged its office or exercised its judgment in an unreasonable manner. If this be so, it is much to be desired that it should be more distinctly recognized than is common by putting the question to be considered in a precise form. For it seems plain that our constitutional system, in its actual development, has tended to bereave our legislatures of their feeling of responsibility and their sense of honor, and also to lead the community off into mistaken views as to the office of the judiciary. It is a common saying in our legislative bodies when any constitutional point is raised, "Oh, the courts will set that right," and it has been said, I believe often, that the weakest objection that you can raise to a proposed measure in a legislative discussion is the constitutional objection. Certainly the courts have often assumed a tone that tended to encourage these views. But recent decisions may help to show how great, under our system also, is legislative power, and how limited is judicial control. Since this is really so, it is a matter to be steadily and heavily emphasized by the courts, and no less to be considered by legislatures and those who choose them.

JAMES B. THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 3, 1884.

#### THE SALE OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you have the kindness to give me what information you can in reference to the method of the distribution of Government publications? Do the Washington bookstores have a monopoly of sale of certain or many of them? Are they bought by these dealers or are they stolen? If neither, what is the mysterious *tertium quid*? I have been endeavoring for a long time to secure a copy of certain reports of the Census Bureau, but so often as I appeal to my representing Masters Bountiful at Washington I soon receive a priced circular of Government publications by mail. Must we pay for these things twice, and if so, why not to the Public Treasury direct?—I am, sir, etc.,

GEO. M. GOULD.

COLUMBUS, O., March 26, 1884.

[We fear our correspondent will have to resort to one of the booksellers whom he mentions. Many protests have been made against the system of distributing "documents," but no considerable reform has been effected. Documents are of two classes, first, those printed by order of the House or Senate, and, second, those issued by the public offices, such as the Consular reports of the State Department, the "Circulars" of the Bureau of Education, the numerous and very expensive reports of the Geological Survey, etc. A certain number of all documents are, by law, delivered to the Smithsonian Institution to be used in "International Exchanges," i. e., for distribution to foreign governments, as is also a supply of the first-named ("Congressional")

publications to the Interior Department for distribution among home libraries. Of the bureau publications, some are sent out gratis, at the discretion of the head of the office, others being sold at cost price. The Washington book-sellers referred to by our correspondent are, in the present chaotic condition of affairs, of great service to the public, both directly and indirectly, as, except through their agency, many of the older publications could not be got at all. We have heard of a bureau which printed a valuable and expensive work, of which the greater part of the edition was distributed to Congressmen, being able to get copies of its own report only by buying from the second hand dealers copies which had passed directly to them through the hands of Congressmen. Many young men who serve Congressmen as secretaries are said to be recompensed for their services wholly or chiefly by the gift of documents.—ED. NATION.]

#### AMERICA AND VESPUCCI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your No. 977, of March 29, you give a note claiming a German origin for the name *America*, and say the word itself is "radically German." There is not a single example in book or manuscript of the word *Americus* previous to the double mistake of Hylacomylus. *Americ* or *Amerrique* is an indigenous name in the New World, used, and in use even now, by the Indians of the Mosquito coast, to designate the country between the coast and the Lake of Nicaragua, and more especially the range of mountains, containing gold mines, between Libertad and Jucalpa, province of Chontales. By a double mistake of the German, Martin Hylacomylus Waltzemüller, a teacher of mathematics at the Gymnasium Vosagense, in the small town of St. Die (Lorraine), the popular name of *Americ*, which was spoken of without a specific locality as a country of the New World, very rich in gold, was given by him to Vespucci as the discoverer or inventor of the New World. In doing this, he first confused Vespucci and Colombo, and then changed the Christian name of Vespucci, which was *Alberico* in Italian, and *Albericus* in Latin, into *Americus* and *Amerigen*.

As the name *Americ* was well known among seamen, it was used without any knowledge of the mistake and of Hylacomylus's small and very rare book, "Cosmographia," the book and man being equally unknown to both Cristoforo Colombo and Alberico Vespucci.—Very respectfully,

JULES MARCOU,

42 GARDEN ST., CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 27, 1884.

[The theory of the native origin of the name *America* is not so definitely established as Mr. Marcou would seem to imply. The "double error" of Waldseemüller is not proved. It is true that Vespucci is called *Albericus* in the early Latin translations of his "Voyages," but these translations were for the most part made from versions of an original the language and authorship of which are alike unknown. That they represent the only correct form of the name is improbable in view of the evidence in favor of *Amerigo*, which was the name of Vespucci's paternal grandfather, the name by which he was known to Columbus and the Spanish sailors, and that which he himself signed, using the spelling *Amerigo*. The Venetian Ambassador at the court of Spain, reporting a personal interview with the navigator in 1505, calls him *Almerico*. The

use of the form *Americus* was a correction rather than a blunder on the part of the German geographer. There is nothing to justify the assumption that Vesputius, who lived until 1512 or 1516, never saw Waldseemüller's issue of his "voyages," especially as a book which appeared in three editions between May and September, 1507, could hardly have been excessively rare then, whatever it may be now.

Mr. Marcou asserts that the name *Americ* was in common use among sailors at the beginning of the sixteenth century. We should be pleased to be referred to any instances of such use of the word. If it were so widely known as to have penetrated to St.-Dié, it is surely strange that it did not appear on the earliest mariner's charts. The truth is, that the "native origin" theory rests only upon the present local usage of the word *Americ* in Nicaragua. This is its solitary fact; all else is ingenious—fatally ingenious—speculation.—ED. NATION.]

#### THE GERMAN SPELLING REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a member of the "Ferein für fereinfachte deutsche Rechtschreibung," whose publications you were kind enough to take notice of in No. 977 of the *Nation*, I beg leave to say some words in explanation. As you have correctly stated the aims of our Society, I need not dwell on them here; but as to the points urged by you, viz., whether the pronunciation of "und" be really "unt," etc., I think there can hardly be any doubt. Indeed, you will find no word in the German language (at least I am not able to recall a single example to the contrary, except in dialects), which, ending with *d*, is not pronounced as though it were spelled with *t*: for instance, *Kind*, *Hand*, *Hund* are pronounced *kint*, *hant*, *hunt*; but as soon as *es*, *e*, *er*, etc., is affixed, the *d* is pronounced as in English. Thus we say, "der Hunt, des Hundes;" "das Bant, des Bandes," etc. Now, since we have as our fundamental rule, "Write as you correctly speak," there is no reason why we should continue to write "Hand," when we say "Hant." And this is by no means something extraordinary; even in the English language you have many examples of the same kind, *e. g.*, thief—thieves, half—halves, etc. Nobody would ever think of writing "there" because the plural is "thieves"; indeed, it would seem absurd.

As to the words "Handlung" and "hökster," quoted by you, I must say that the former is a misprint in the *Kalender*, as is obvious, since "Handlung" is derived not from "hant," but from "handeln," and originally was spelled "Handelung." "Hökster" is the pronunciation of "höchster," prevalent in Southern Germany, but, of course, is not in its place in a classical poem. In the word "setzen" the first *e* is short, and therefore the *t* is needed to close the syllable; *setzen* would undoubtedly be read *se-zen*—a word totally unknown in German.

You are certainly right in your criticism of words like "Kromwel," "Moro," etc., appearing in the historical tables of the *Kalender*; but these and other points will be remedied in next year's issue. Indeed, the orthography of proper names cannot well be changed without impairing their intelligibility; but, on the other hand, great care has been taken by the Society to establish the true pronunciation of oft-used words taken from foreign languages, and the pages of the *Reform* contain valuable lists of Russian, Spanish, Hungarian, and Chinese names (geo-

graphical and historical), which have been of great use to its members.

A spelling reform cannot be introduced without struggles—in fact, attacks of every kind have not been wanting; but still we have had the satisfaction of our principles being adopted (although not therefore enforced) in the official orthography now in use in all German schools. Our demand for "one alphabet (the Roman) only" has been stubbornly opposed, even by men of undoubted literary renown, on the ground of patriotism, they regarding the German character as a German palladium (although it has long been proved that it originated only in the fact of the first printers imitating the script of the monk-copyists); but the damaging effect of the German letters upon the eye is being more and more widely appreciated, and only recently Professor Virchow took occasion to plead, in the Prussian Diet, for the universal adoption of the Roman alphabet—a demand made by J. Grimm more than half a century ago.

We therefore have good reason to hope for the final success of our movement; but to attain this it is necessary that every one interested in sound spelling, and, besides, in the propagation of our German language, should join our Society, and help, in his own way, to further the cause. I am certain that among the readers of the *Nation* there are a good many who will appreciate the importance of German spelling reform, and would willingly do their share in promoting it. I should be very glad to inform them, on application, of particulars.—Very respectfully,

OTTO WOLLERMANN.

80 SECOND STREET, BROOKLYN, E. D., N. Y.,  
March 31, 1884.

[Mr. Wollermann's assertion that *d* at the end of a syllable is pronounced like *t*, proves only that he considers any deviation from the rule "dialect." Yet we would ask him whether he himself pronounces *rund* like *bunt*, not to speak of *Pfad*, *Rad*, *Eid*, etc. And even he, as a presumable North German, will admit that the "fundamental" rule, "Write as you correctly speak," is not always a safe guide. For instance, in Hanover, Hamburg, and other parts of Germany, where the language is supposed to be spoken in its greatest purity, *sp* and *st*, in *Sprache*, *Stelle*, etc., are pronounced as written, while on no German stage with which we are acquainted—not in the classic Vienna Burg Theatre, which may be said to lay down rules for the pronunciation of the German language, as the Théâtre-Français does for the French, nor in the Berlin Court Theatre, nor in the Hamburg Thalia Theatre—is anything but the "dialect" pronunciation "*Schprache*," "*Schtelle*," etc., ever heard. As regards *setzen*, we must admit that we were in error. The old rule which considers the *tz* merely an equivalent of *zz*, as applied to the new orthography, renders the *t* a superfluity in *Sitz*, though not in *setzen*.—ED. NATION.]

#### Notes.

THE following are some of the spring announcements which we take from the *Publishers' Weekly*, the editor remarking of the whole that they show the tendency of the trade to concentrate their business in the latter part of the year, instead of distributing it. *D. Appleton & Co.*: 'The Prose Writings of William Cullen Bryant,' edited by Parke Godwin; 'Louis Pas-

teur: his Life and Labors,' by his son-in-law; 'Speeches, Arguments and Miscellaneous Papers,' by David Dudley Field; 'Mental Evolution in Animals,' by George J. Romanes; and 'Electricity,' by J. E. Gordon. *Robert Clarke & Co.*, Cincinnati: 'Sorghum: its Culture and Manufacture Economically Considered,' by Prof. Peter Collier; 'Camping and Cruising in Florida,' by Dr. James A. Henshall; and 'The Principles and Practice of Common School Education,' by James Currie. *Geo. H. Ellis*, Boston: Dr. George Grove's essays on 'Beethoven's Nine Symphonies,' with illustrations from the scores. *Estes & Lauriat*, Boston: the complete works of Thomas Carlyle in twenty crown octavo volumes on the finest parchment-linen drawing paper, to be called the "Parchment Edition," and illustrated with original etchings, steel-engravings, etc., and limited to 375 copies; and 'Birds of Haiti and San Domingo,' by Charles B. Cory. *S. C. Griggs & Co.*, Chicago: a new edition of Prof. Wm. Mathews's 'Words, their Use and Abuse'; and 'Geological Excursions; or the Rudiments of Geology for Young Learners,' by Prof. Alexander Winchell. *Harper & Bros.*: 'Marcus Aurelius Antoninus,' by Paul Barron Watson; George Eliot's 'Essays and Leaves from a Notebook'; a new "Library Edition," in seven volumes, of Coleridge's works, with an introductory essay upon his philosophical and theological opinions, edited by Prof. W. G. T. Shedd, and indexed by Arthur Gilman; 'Manners and Social Customs in America,' a book of etiquette, by Mrs. John Sherwood; and 'The Entailed Hat,' by George Alfred Townsend. *Henry Holt & Co.*: the 'Chanson de Roland,' translated by Prof. Léonce Rabillon, of Johns Hopkins University. *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*, Boston: 'Margaret Fuller Ossoli,' by T. W. Higginson; 'Captains of Industry,' biographical sketches by James Parton; and a translation of the first twelve books of the 'Odyssey,' by Prof. Geo. H. Palmer. *Lee & Shepard*, Boston: 'Whirlwinds, Cyclones, and Tornadoes,' by Wm. M. Davis; 'The Military Reconnaissance of Alaska, in 1883,' under command of Lieutenant Schwatka; 'Wild Woods Life,' by Capt. C. A. J. Farrar; 'Beginnings with the Microscope,' by Dr. Walter P. Manton; and a new and uniform edition of J. T. Trowbridge's novels. *J. B. Lippincott & Co.*, Philadelphia: 'Leibnitz,' by John Theodore Merz; 'Life and Select Literary Remains of Sam Houston, of Texas,' by Wm. Cary Crane; 'Memoir and Correspondence of Eliza P. Gurney,' edited by Richard F. Mott; and 'Home and School Training,' by Mrs. H. E. G. Arey. *D. Lothrop & Co.*, Boston: 'American Explorations in the Ice Zones,' by Prof. J. E. Nourse, U. S. N.; 'Life of Oliver Wendell Holmes,' by E. E. Brown; 'The Great Composers,' by Hezekiah Butterworth; 'The Travelling Law School and Famous Trials,' by Benjamin Vaughan Abbott; and 'Health and Strength Papers for Girls,' by Dr. Mary J. Safford and Mary E. Allen. *Macmillan & Co.*: 'Autobiography of Hector Berlioz'; 'Investigations in Currency and Finance,' by the late W. S. Jevons; 'Selections from Cowper's Letters,' by the Rev. W. Benham; and 'The Boy Emigrants,' a series of letters from Texas, edited by Thomas Hughes. *Thomas Nelson & Sons*: 'Gulliver's Travels,' with introduction and explanatory notes, by Robert Mackenzie. *Phillips & Hunt*: an 'Index to the Methodist Quarterly Review, 1818-1881,' by Dr. Elijah H. Pilcher. *G. P. Putnam's Sons*: 'Six Centuries of Work and Wages: the History of English Labor,' by J. E. Thorold Rogers; 'The Woman Question in Europe,' by Theodore Stanton; 'The Franco-American Cookery Book,' by Felix J. Déléée; and a series of 'American Orations, from the Colonial Period to the Present Time,' edited in



three volumes by Prof. Alexander Johnston, of Princeton College. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.: Tyndale's 'Five Books of Moses,' a reprint, with collations, from the edition of 1530, edited by J. I. Mombert, D.D.; and 'Echoes from the Oratory: Selections from the Poems of John Henry Newman, D.D.' Roberts Bros., Boston: 'The Making of a Man,' a sequel to 'His Majesty Myself,' by the late Rev. William M. Baker; a new edition of Emerson's 'Life of Margaret Fuller'; and Lord Ronald Gower's 'Reminiscences.' Charles Scribner's Sons: a translation of Busch's 'Our Chancellor'; and the 'Life of Frederick Denison Maurice,' by his son. Scribner & Welford: 'Chronicles of Newgate,' by Maj. Arthur Griffiths; and the 'Chief Works of Benedict de Spinoza,' translated by R. H. M. Elwes. E. Steiger & Co.: 'In der Neuen Heimath,' a collection of historical contributions on German emigrants in all parts of the United States, edited by Anton Eickhoff; and a series of accompanying 'Geschichtsblätter,' edited by Carl Schurz, and beginning with a revised abridged edition of Friedrich Kapp's 'Geschichte der Deutschen im Staate New York,' followed by 'Bilder aus der Deutsch-Pennsylvanischen Geschichte,' by Oswald Seidensticker; a new edition of Gustav Körner's 'Das Deutsche Element in den Vereinigten Staaten'; and 'Geschichte des Deutschen Elements in Staate Maine,' by H. A. Rattermann. Thomas Whittaker: Ellice Hopkins's 'Work among Workingmen'; and 'Anna Caye, or the Ugly Princess,' by Sarah Doubney. John Wiley & Sons: 'Metrology,' by Lieut. C. A. Totten—a defence of the Anglo-Saxon weights and measures, after the example of Prof. Piazzi Smyth; and President Barnard's counter work, 'The Metrological System of the Great Pyramid.'

George A. Leavitt & Co. will sell at auction in May the library of Alexander Farnum, of Providence, one of the notable private collections of that city.

A year and a half ago we reviewed the first volume of the Rev. E. M. Wherry's 'Comprehensive Commentary on the Qurán' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), in the 'English and Foreign Philosophical Library.' The second volume of this meritorious work has now come to hand, ending with the Surat al Raad.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have put forth a cheap edition, in paper covers, of the 'Speeches, Lectures, and Letters' of the late Wendell Phillips. The plates are those of the Redpath edition of 1863, whose steel-plate portrait is here reproduced by "process." A slight biographical sketch is prefixed. An interval of fourteen years separates the first two addresses of this collection—a fact worth the attention of any biographer.

A new edition of Anna Ayres's 'Life and Work of William Augustus Muhlenberg' bears the imprint of A. D. F. Randolph & Co. It is an interesting narrative of a highly useful and benevolent career, to which fame was brought by a single hymn, "I would not live away," that was the least among his achievements. As early as 1849, for example, he instituted the "fresh air" mode of charity, which has had such a development of late years. Two portraits accompany the work.

A quaint library for the young, entitled "More for Good than Glitter Series," has been begun by the Esperanza Publishing Co., Lebanon, Pa. No. 1 is the old story in rhyme of "Joe Dobson and his Dame," who exchange duties for one day, to the husband's discomfiture. No. 2 is the rhymed "School of Good Manners." In both these brochures the facsimiles of the original cuts or engravings are the striking feature.

We have received the first number of *He-*

*braica*, "a monthly journal in the interests of Hebrew study," issued in Chicago by "The American Publication Society of Hebrew." The "managing editor" is William R. Harper, Ph.D., Professor of Hebrew and the Cognate Languages in the Chicago Baptist Union Theological Seminary, and the monthly is to be a companion to the *Old Testament Student*, issued under the same auspices. The new periodical is, we are informed, mainly intended for the benefit of a school for the study of Hebrew by correspondence, organized within three years, and already including over six hundred clergymen and students—which, for three years, is a tremendous success. The members of the school, we are further told, reside "in almost every State in the Union, in Canada, in England, in Scotland, in Ireland, in Turkey, in China, in Japan, in India." Mr. Harper has procured for *Hebraica* the coöperation of two excellent Oriental scholars, Dr. Strack, of the University of Berlin, and Dr. Haupt, formerly of the University of Göttingen, and now Professor of Semitic Languages in Johns Hopkins University. If the journal is to be worthy of such "associate editors," we cannot refrain from suggesting to Mr. Harper that some of its features, which give it the look of an advertising medium in the "interests" of the school described above and of its managers, must be made to disappear, and a generally good revision of its contents secured. The only slip in Hebrew which has struck us is 'ebed for 'eber, in Luzzato's sonnet—an old piece, perhaps deservedly reprinted. The number consists of twenty four 8vo pages, and embraces some original matter of merit, besides some notices copied from books and periodicals.

Mr. W. J. Linton continues his good work of exposing pseudo-Bewicks, in the *Academy* of March 22; his text here being the Charnley edition of Fables (1820), and Pearson's reprint of Saint (1878). His information will be of great value to collectors.

It has already an ancient sound when a son now living tells of his father's bringing to England the first news of the battle of Leipzig. This is what Mr. Edward Solly does in the *March Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton). The elder Solly was fifteen days in doing it, and beat the bearer of the original despatches. The story is apropos of "News and Newspapers." A correspondent makes the useful and probable suggestion that Spenser derived the mythology of his 'Faerie Queene,' not from the classics, but from Boccaccio.

The March number of the *Library Journal* contains a portion of the thoughtful and stimulating address of Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, delivered at the opening of the Sage Library at West Bay City, Michigan, in January last. In his interesting historical review of the stages of library formation in this country, he records the universal failure of the costly district-school libraries invented by DeWitt Clinton. He fails, it seems to us, to put his finger on the fundamental error, which was in seeking to elevate the pupils instead of the teachers. Had the same amount of money been expended in books of reference for them, the improved quality of teaching would have made return a hundred fold. This is still a desideratum.

Charing Cross and its changes are pleasantly described in the opening paper of the current *English Illustrated Magazine* (Macmillan), by Austin Dobson. A number of curious old prints and some recent drawings (not so good that photographic representations would not have been preferable) assist in the story.

A paper on "Esoteric Buddhism" seems misplaced in the *Bay State Monthly* for March. Both this number, however, and the current one, are in the main true to the Massachusetts biograph-

ic historical ideal of the editor. The April number prints a facsimile of the recently unearthed oration delivered at Hanover, N. H., by Daniel Webster, on July 4, 1800.

The Education of Women, and Van Buren's Administration are the topics of Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for March.

Dr. Earl Flint contributes to the March number of the *American Antiquarian and Oriental Journal* a particular account of human foot-prints uncovered by him in a quarry at Managua, in Nicaragua, the overlying rock being seven inches thick. The locality is a lake shore. Two of the prints have been secured for the Peabody Museum at Cambridge.

One does not look for humor, outside of 'Pickwick' or Bret Harte's famous Stanislaus Society, in the proceedings of antiquaries, but last year's report of the Philadelphia Numismatic and Antiquarian Society is well calculated to amuse. A reverend gentleman communicated "a remarkable fact, which he had discovered after long study, viz: that the Mongolian symbolism of writing was to be found on the rock sculpture of Mexico and Central America." Not content with this, he read an essay on the Dighton rock inscription, hitherto associated with the Northmen, but which he had "translated by means of Chinese radicals" to the following truly elegant effect: "A chain or band of folk from the sun-rising (or East), after a long and stormy voyage, found the harbor of a great island. On landing and tying up our boats, we first gave thanks and adoration to God, Shang Ti, the Supreme Ruler of the universe. We then sacrificed a human head to the moon, burning it and the body on a round sun altar. . . . Our mouths hankered after something to eat and drink. We found the blue-black maize of our native land and wild fruit. We filled our rice kettles," etc. etc. If this is a sample of what the "Chinese radicals" are capable of, we are confident they might usefully be applied to the glacial scratches.

The latest *China Review* (November-December, 1883), by the way, has some capital specimens of Hakka folk lore, the original characters being placed beside the translation. "Do not say that because the good is little it is not to be done, or that because the evil is little you may do it." "Men should not be too obstinate; . . . the wicked man will always be outdone by one more wicked; . . . and the longest-toothed wife will find her match with a raw potato." "Though he has never eaten pork, he has seen a pig run."

Prof. George H. Cook's annual report shows that the topographical survey of New Jersey has now been completed for nearly two-fifths of the total area of the State in the most difficult portion, so that more than one half the labor has been done. Two more of the seventeen sheets of the map are about ready for distribution. Artesian wells sunk at Ocean Grove and Asbury Park have revealed conditions favorable to a perfect water supply of the entire southern coast, which has now become so great a summer resort. The chapter on the Archæan iron-ore-bearing rocks is like a technical lesson, with illustrations, in geological structure. There is an extensive table of dips for these rocks. Copper mining in New Jersey has taken a fresh start under more promising auspices than ever, and the graphite product is now getting to be considerable.

From the State Geologist of Alabama, Mr. Eugene Allen Smith, we have his agricultural report for the year 1881-82, replete with scientific and practical information, including an orderly agricultural description of each of the counties. The discussion of population and cotton production has a general interest. Taken as a whole, the State yields about one bale for every

two inhabitants, and the crop is, of course, mainly produced by the blacks. Where they are most in excess of the whites, the naturally richest lands exist, but also the largest farms and the most exhausting and ruinous system of cultivation; where the races are nearly equal in number, farms are small, and land poorer, but better worked and more fruitful and more varied in crops. The very poorest lands mark a great preponderance of whites. Such is the prevailing system of credits that "the whole cotton crop is usually mortgaged before it is gathered." This volume has been prepared in conjunction with the Census Bureau, and uses the physical maps of the late census.

"The Glacial Boundary in Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky" is the title of a pamphlet just published by the Western Reserve Historical Society, at Cleveland, Ohio. The author, Prof. G. Frederick Wright, of Oberlin, is well known for his enthusiasm on this subject. His conclusions are here mapped and explained, and in the case of Ohio a detailed report of his researches is given. Professor Wright notes the coincidence between the glacial boundary in that State and the southern line of wheat production. We will point out another. In 1880 the centre of population in the United States rested almost exactly upon it, in the little belt which crosses Kentucky.

The fourth annual report of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Japanese Government covers the year July 1, 1878-79, and contains much curious information. The number of medical students in public schools and hospitals was 4,313, but only 2,868 were pursuing a strict course. Licenses were granted to sell nearly 5,000 different kinds of patent medicines; yet this number represents a large falling-off since the year before. As in the case of our "bitters," venders carried on a profitable trade in *sake* without paying the wine-tax, by mixing with ordinary Japanese wine a small quantity of some medicament.

Exceptionally valuable are the contents of the fourth annual report of the Massachusetts Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity for the past year. Elaborate papers on the adulteration of food, and on eyes and industries, have a universal interest; so, indeed, has that on the reformed sewage of Nahant, while the subject of the paper on leprosy is, we are told, of increasing moment on account of foreign immigration. Nor do we remember any such comprehensive statistical summary of the public water-supply of a single State as is given here. The bibliographies of food adulteration and of leprosy deserve to be noted.

The Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic Ocean issued by the Hydrographic Office will hereafter be issued on the first of each month. That for April 1 records very severe weather in March and an unprecedented area of floating ice. The bergs and fields reported are pictured on the map, as also are wrecks of ships encountered. The direction of currents and winds is graphically shown as usual, and notices are printed of the latest tidings as to buoys, shoals, etc.

On April 5 appeared the first number of volume two of *Mélusine*, a review of mythology, popular literature, traditions and usages, founded in 1877, and then suspended at the close of the first volume. Its conductors, MM. H. Gaidoz and E. Rolland, remain the same; the scope of the review will be enlarged so as to stimulate research by editorial suggestion. The publisher is A. F. Staude, 6 rue des Fossés-St.-Bernard, Paris, and the subscription price 23.50 francs to foreigners.

Mr. Christern has received a volume of great value to economists, being the official testimony taken by a committee of inquiry into the condition of French workmen and industries during 1882 and 1883. This inquiry was ordered by Government from a sense of the disastrous

effects of foreign competition and a desire to apply a remedy. Quantin is the Paris publisher.

From the same source come to us the early numbers of the ninth volume of the *Gazette Anecdotique, Littéraire, Artistique, Bibliographique*, edited by G. D'Heylli, and published by Jouaust—a pretty, handy little fortnightly chronicle of the town's doings and sayings ("les mots de la quinzaine"), with literary varia, such as unpublished letters of Rachel, of Louis Veuillot, of Jules Sandeau, the numbering of the streets of Paris, familiar quotations, etc. The value of this collection will always be enhanced by its readability.

The double number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* of the French School at Athens for January and February contains five plates of Greek leaden *tesserae*, comprising 225 specimens, many showing obverse and reverse, and forming a most interesting collection of numismatic designs. These were probably the seals of towns or individual merchants, and are mainly of the Macedonian or Roman epochs, though some are early and very fine. The literary contributions comprise a series of inscriptions from Amorgos, by Koumanoudes, the ablest of Greek epigraphists; from Kalymnos by Dubois, of the School; from Maronia, by Reinach; a series of "free papers," inscriptions recording the liberation of slaves, from Chæroneia and Orchomenos, by Latichev; and a most important paper on the Romans at Delos by Homolle, one of the students who have been in charge of the work on that island. A contribution by the Director, M. Foucart, concludes the list. To the student of Greek epigraphy the *Bulletin* is the most valuable contemporary publication.

—For the clearer understanding of a subject which never may be altogether freed from obscurity, Mr. Abner C. Goodell, jr.'s, 'Further Notes on the History of Witchcraft in Massachusetts' (Cambridge: John Wilson & Son) should be read in connection with Mr. George H. Moore's 'Notes on the History of Witchcraft in Massachusetts' (Worcester: Charles Hamilton), and the March Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Many able historians and jurists, in reviewing the Salem witch trials of 1692, have condemned the whole proceedings as irregular and illegal. We believe we may say that almost all the "authorities," from Hutchinson down to Palfrey, have denounced the court as a "sham court," and the law upon which the trials were based as a "dead letter." The quoted words, though used by only one writer, seem fitly to express the opinions of many. The court was a "sham court," say these writers, because by a provision of the Province charter the General Court was alone empowered to "erect and constitute judicial courts and courts of record or other courts" for the hearing, trying, and determining of "all manner of crimes, offences, . . . actions, matters, causes, and things whatsoever" happening within the Province; and they argue that it was "a gross usurpation of power" for the Governor (Phipps) to institute a court of oyer and terminer for the trial of the accused witches, his privilege being limited to the appointment of the commissioners thereof. Hutchinson (and his view seems to have been unhesitatingly adopted by subsequent historians) says that "at the first trial there was no colony or provincial law against witchcraft," and that the applicability here of any of the witchcraft laws of the mother country may be fairly questioned. The first act of the first Provincial General Court was to revive the whole colonial code of laws (including laws against witchcraft)—an inferential admission that the authority of these

laws ceased upon the abrogation of the colonial charter, and consequently that at the time of the first witch trial the witch law was a "dead letter." Mr. Moore and Mr. Goodell have taken a bold stand in opposition to these views, and rarely have we seen so many evidences of careful research brought to bear upon a debatable question of history as are exhibited in their pamphlets. Mr. Moore engages to prove the sufficiency of statute and common law in all the proceedings against the accused witches; while Mr. Goodell declares in favor of the validity of the court, that it was erected in strict conformity to law and precedent and the "express language of the charter." Another important question is brought up for discussion, namely, whether the law of 1711, reversing "the several convictions, judgments, and attainders" against the condemned, was ever duly enacted—Mr. Goodell for the affirmative, Mr. Moore for the negative. Mr. Goodell offers as evidence a copy of the act, purporting to have been printed two years after its enactment, and follows its progress "from the inceptive petition to its final passage," by extracts from the official records. A heliotype copy of the act is inserted in his pamphlet. Mr. Moore maintains that the law was inoperative, not having received the approval of the Governor; that there being but one copy in existence furnishes a presumption against it; and further, that the reversal of attainders was a prerogative belonging to the King and Parliament, "and it is measurably certain that this act never came under the notice of the Privy Council." The law has often been referred to by local historians, some of whom have made verbatim quotations therefrom, and Mr. Moore is the first to pronounce publicly against its genuineness.

—The *Art Union* monthly contains a long and interesting account of the manufacture of and trade in bogus pictures, which will interest collectors ever though it do not teach them how to protect themselves. The public must learn that in art matters *expertise* is an affair of education, and the millionaire who ventures to buy on his own account without that education may buy what pleases him, and may be trusted to pay no more than he can afford, but that his purchases will be worth commercially what they cost him is a matter of uncertainty—the reverse is far more likely. But there is no occasion for compassion towards the defrauded: if a man has got what pleases him, and pays what he can spare, he has no ground for complaint. To cultivate his taste to the point that he can purchase wisely is an expensive process, and the ordinary millionaire cannot afford it. It is reserved for men, like Messrs. Walters, Martin Brimmer, Quincy Shaw, etc., with whom art has been a life-long study, to make collections on their merits which will prove permanent, sound investments. There is, however, one consideration which the public has not yet taken in: if a picture is known to be a Corot (to take our illustration from the recent Dumas case), it is worth 12,000 francs, and if it proves to be by Trouillebert it is only worth 400. The difference is the autographic value of the work. An original drawing by Raphael, properly authenticated, will be worth in the market thousands of dollars, where an exact copy by an expert and known draughtsman will be worth the hundredth part of that price, and a good facsimile by photography only a dollar. An original letter of Raphael's will be worth even more in comparison with the copy. Now this enormous difference is due purely to the reverence or regard we entertain for any authentic relic of the great men of the past, and increases as they recede into the region of "has been;" a



certain reverence which surrounds the artist increasing this autographic value of works of art more than is the case with men of most other professions. This is the reason why the authenticity of a work of art becomes an important element in determining its money value; its absolute value is quite indeterminable—has in fact no figure. That Raphael had ever touched a palette or a pencil would make it a relic of great price; that which has not only the touch of his hand but the perfect expression of his mind, is still more exalted by the apotheosis of time. The only alternative for our collectors who will not study art is to buy from the artists while they are living. Those who fear that the removal of the tariff will favor the introduction of "trash" may be consoled by the *Art Union's* revelations of the factories of the worst kind of trash in this city, the turning out of oil pictures at \$10 the dozen, framed, at wholesale. The Yankee genius is not to be circumvented where money is to be made, and it is certain that we can turn out greater and cheaper trash than has ever been imported.

—The affectionate tribute to the late Mr. Lasker by his friend Rodenberg, in the *Rundschau* for March, is followed in the April *Nord und Süd* by an (artistically) admirable etched portrait, and a sketch, by an anonymous writer, who describes himself as having been Lasker's political and party associate. Lasker's individual career is important enough for the article to be worth reading on his account, but its chief interest is as an illustration of German political ideas. The writer corroborates all that has been said by others respecting Lasker's extraordinary disinterestedness, his absolute negation of self as regards personal reward and political preferment, his entire patriotism. But the curious thing is that, as regards his political action, Lasker is praised not for what he did but for what he abstained from doing; not as an originating and propelling, but as a restraining force. We need hardly remind the reader that in German politics there are three constant elements besides several accidental ones (among which, of course, is Bismarck). These permanent features are the Conservatives, the Liberals, and the Catholics. Aloof from these has always stood Bismarck, surrounded by a small band composed partly of personal disciples, partly of adherents of the head of the Government as such. Though it is doubtless true that he detests parliamentary government, it is undeniable that he has proved himself a consummate parliamentary tactician, for by using each party in turn he has succeeded in carrying out nearly all his plans without adopting the peculiar ideas of any of the factions. Now the party of which Lasker's ability, energy, power of work, and hold on the people, caused by their consciousness of his disinterestedness, made him the leader in fact if not in name, had this and this alone in common with Bismarck—that they wished, above all other things, the establishment and maintenance of German unity. Each secretly regarded the other as a necessary evil in the accomplishment of this purpose, and some Liberals (the Fortschrittspartei, stigmatized in this article as doctrinaires) saw from the beginning that as soon as Bismarck had accomplished his immediate object he would throw over his Liberal allies in favor of a new combination. They, therefore, consistently acted up to their principles, never trusting Bismarck further than they could see him, never surrendering for the sake of half a loaf what they deemed their legitimate, if impracticable, claim upon the whole. Lasker, on the contrary, was the great advocate of what the French call opportunism—not exactly the same as our expediency—and this, in the opinion

of the *Nord und Süd* writer, constitutes his best claim to gratitude and remembrance. Without departing from Liberalism in theory, Lasker is here represented as always ready on national questions to "pool issues" and vote with Bismarck, until the time came when he had to acknowledge, though with the greatest reluctance, that Liberals could no longer bend their policy so as to follow Bismarck without entirely losing their identity. As to the final value of this policy, the opinions of Liberals will always differ, because there will never be agreement as to whether his series of compromises secured much that was otherwise unattainable, or whether, by enabling Bismarck to consolidate his power without giving guarantees against its abuse, it made it possible for him in the end to turn his back upon all Liberalism. The view of Lasker's immediate followers is shown clearly enough by the fact that, relieved of the influence of his character and reputation, they at once coalesced with the more consistent Liberals, who had never ceased to upbraid Lasker with time-serving and subserviency.

—Seldom has a new work of sterling merit met with such immediate and emphatic success as Dvořák's "Stabat Mater" on Thursday evening at the third concert of the New York Chorus Society. The members appeared in full force, and listened to the Bohemian composer's masterpiece with rapt attention and a generous disposition to applaud its many beauties, as well as the merits of the performance. Every lover of serious music must feel grateful to Brahms, Liszt, and Joachim for having discovered the gifts of Dvořák, and given him an opportunity to acquire an international reputation commensurate with his genius much sooner than would have been the case without such influential friends. The "Stabat Mater" at once takes its place by the side of the best works that have been composed to the same words. It is by no means Dvořák's latest opus, having been written nearly ten years ago. From his other compositions it differs in being less strongly flavored with Slavic ingredients, as conditioned to some extent by the nature of the subject. And yet its nationality is unmistakable, mainly on account of the uninterrupted flow of chaste, pure melody. Those who observe the signs of the times must perceive that, now that the fountains of Italian music are exhausted, a new stream of melody is being turned into European music. It is more healthy in tone, less artificial in structure, and suggests the open fields and forests rather than the hot-houses in which *floriture* and rank arias are reared. The "Stabat Mater" illustrates this new tendency. It is not only full of melody, but the melody is simple and yet never commonplace, because it rests on a substantial, rich, and varied harmonic basis. The accompaniment also is melodious in all its parts, and this gives the score a polyphonic aspect, although never at the expense of clearness. The changes of key are often surprisingly beautiful, being sometimes brought about through a suspension, at other times by an abrupt but natural transition which suggests Schubert in manner rather than in substance. The instrumentation gives evidence of an exquisite color sense, rare even at the present day. All the families of instruments are impartially considered, and true genius is displayed in the manner in which certain instruments are combined with the voices, no less than in the transitions from one tint to another, which are always arranged with a sense analogous to that for complementary colors and contrasts in the world of sight; and this is a feature to which most composers do not pay sufficient attention. The general character of the work is, of course, sombre. Several London critics have objected to

the predominance of the minor keys in the "Stabat Mater." This is a peculiar objection, which is met by three answers: (1) The sad and solemn character of minor makes it especially suited to the words to which it is set; (2) the tendency of modern music, as already noted by Schumann, is toward minor in preference to major, because it facilitates modulation; (3) Slavic music, in particular, favors the minor mode, as was the case with music generally as long as melody predominated over harmony. Dvořák's treatment of the voices is no less commendable than that of the instruments. In several of the numbers fine effects are produced by the gradual addition to a solo voice of two or three others. The choruses are without exception interesting, several of them grand and inspiring. Indeed, there is hardly a dull moment in the whole work, and it is, therefore, needless to single out any parts for special praise. In number ten and one of the preceding numbers occur chorale-like passages for unaccompanied chorus, which produced a great effect, and were magnificently sung, showing even better than the accompanied parts of what good material the Chorus Society now consists in all its members, and how well it has been trained. Special attention was paid to the shading, especially the numerous sforzandos and crescendos which occur in almost every bar. The solo parts were effectively rendered by Misses Emma Juch and Winant, Messrs. Graff and Heinrich.

—An interesting experiment was made at the sixth concert of the Symphony Society on Saturday. Beethoven's quartet in C sharp minor, op. 131, was played in a version for full orchestra made by Karl Müller-Berghaus. The experiment was worth making, even if it should not prove to be of permanent value. Of course the practice is common, in American and European concert halls, of playing single movements of a string quartet with the full string orchestra. Most concert halls are too large to enable four players alone to be heard to advantage, and this procedure is therefore the only way of familiarizing the masses with the gems of chamber music. The arrangement of a whole quartet for full orchestra, and especially of so unique a work as Beethoven's opus 131, is quite another thing. Fortunately Müller-Berghaus is not only a good quartet player, thoroughly familiar with the later Beethoven, but he also understands the uses of the orchestra. In his version the strings of course predominate, the wind instruments being chiefly used to give variety in cases of repetition, and to emphasize the melody when it occurs in the middle parts. Nowhere are the limits of Beethoven's orchestra exceeded, and it is probable that had Beethoven himself arranged his quartet for orchestra the result would have been similar. Had he written it for orchestra, it would have been different; the harmonies on occasion would have been richer and the treatment of the parts more complicated. For, notwithstanding the excellence of Müller-Berghaus's work, the quartet does not in its new garb quite merit the title of "a new Beethoven symphony." Its original purpose cannot be disguised; and, for our part, we should at any time prefer it as played by the Joachim Quartet at the Berlin Singakademie than as given at the Academy of Music by Dr. Damrosch's orchestra, although the performance was, on the whole, intelligent and meritorious. Many passages in this magnificent work disclose their full beauty only after repeated hearing, and familiarity is apt to breed that enthusiasm which caused Wagner to exclaim that the last movement is "the dance of the world itself; wild delight, the lamentation of anguish, ecstasy of love, highest rapture,

misery, rage, voluptuousness, and sorrow." Like all the works of Beethoven's last years, this quartet is prophetic of the change which was to come over music after him, in so far as the architectural principle was exchanged for the poetic, dramatic, and psychologic. Here we have no longer four movements of equal length symmetrically grouped together; but the movements become shorter and twelve in number, counting the separate variations; while within each movement there are numerous ritardandos that give the effect of poetic emotion.

#### CATHARINE II.

*Katharina die Zweite.* Von Dr. Alexander Brückner, Professor an der Universität Dorpat. Mit Portraits und Illustrationen. [Forming vol. x. of the third main division of the 'Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen,' edited by Wilhelm Oncken.] Berlin. 1883.

THE character pictures of the "Semiramis of the North" have been as diverse as those of Napoleon I. According to some, she was, with all her foibles, one of the grandest apparitions in history, combining equal power, genius, liberalism, and generosity; according to others, she was, with all her ability, one of the meanest women that ever swayed the destinies of a great country; and most varied have been the accounts which endeavored to strike a just balance between those extreme views. The appearance of the 'Mémoires' of Catharine herself, which Alexander Herten published in 1859, and the genuineness of which has long been generally recognized, has silenced the writers of panegyrics of her forever; the successive publication, in Russian and foreign collections and periodicals, of a vast mass of her correspondence, and of contemporary notices concerning her, has revealed traits incompatible with the idea of her having been entirely devoid of the better feelings of humanity and of her sex. The balance is now overwhelmingly against her as to her moral worth, though greatly in her favor when her gifts and accomplishments are considered. What she has been to Russia and to Europe, by her boundless ambition and restless activity, is a question on which something like an accord of opinion can much less easily be reached, if at all. Mourners of Poland will ever curse the memory of her whose heartless Machiavellian diplomacy and ruthless warfare undermined and destroyed the existence of that unfortunate nation. Admirers of the transformation of Russia inaugurated by Peter the Great cannot fail to see in Catharine a shining continuator of his work of reform and civilization. National writers of Old-Russian proclivities, inclined to ascribe the gravest ills of the Empire of the Czars to the departure from the ancient Slavic traditions and ways, and the covering of its surface with a worse than useless foreign varnish, must find in the German Princess who was Peter's fourth female successor a better Russian than he was himself, but yet a "Westerner." Applauders of the rise of Slavic and other Christian nations on the ruins of the Ottoman Empire will easily pardon the wholesale butcheries committed by the Rumyantzeffs, Potemkins, and Suvoroffs while leading Catharine's armies toward the Danube. Others will not forget that those fierce wars had for their only object the substitution of the barbaric sway of Muscovite autocracy for Turkish irregular oppression, that they ruined the political equilibrium of Europe, and resulted in perils to that continent more to be dreaded than any with which the Crescent ever menaced it.

Professor Brückner does not enter into the consideration of topics like these. His history is almost purely biographical and objective. He has labored, as to his materials, under an op-

pressive *embarras de richesse*, and has had to contend with difficulties of expression arising out of his position as professor at a Russian university; but he has succeeded in making the comprehensive volume highly interesting in the best sense of the word, and, in regard to historical veracity and authenticity, not unworthy of its place in the eminent collection of which it forms a comparatively very conspicuous part. His Catharine is a picture fully, laboriously, and carefully executed, though not without a strong favorable bias.

Professor Brückner dwells with complacency on the rare mental qualities which distinguished his heroine in her youthful years. When a mere child, she was remarkable for her serious, cool, and calculating intellect, great energy, and freedom from caprice and levity. When she entered the Russian court (in 1744), at the age of not quite fifteen, to become the bride of the future Czar Peter III., she at once grasped all the difficulties of her situation, and resolved how to meet them. There were unavoidable collisions with her own ambitious mother, wife of the Prince of Anhalt-Zerbst, who had taken her to St. Petersburg; with the Empress Elizabeth, who evinced some mistrust toward the gifted young Princess; with Peter, who felt no affection for her. She was determined to make herself mistress of the situation, to become Empress of Russia at any cost. She shrank from no sacrifice to her feelings, from the employment of no means. She had to fall back upon the resources of her own mind, upon herself. In the midst of a glittering and revelling court, of gazing multitudes and scrutinizing observers, she lived in complete isolation. She devoted her time to studies and the acquisition of various accomplishments, to self-culture in the broadest sense. In the shadow of a throne whose mistress, a daughter of Peter the Great, displayed all the brutality and little of the genius of her father, and linked to a most contemptible young Prince, who was devoid even of what was barbarously grand in his imperial aunt and grandfather, Catharine kept up a constant communion with the leading ideas and spirits of the age, and became an adept in its liberalism—a devoted disciple of Montesquieu and Voltaire, Diderot and D'Alembert. But at the same time she practised horseback riding and hunting, she was ostensibly a most devout follower of the Greek Church—having abjured her Protestantism—acquired a perfect fluency in the language of her adopted country, and in every way showed herself a Russian of the Russians; while the Crown Prince, her consort, alienated the attachment of his future subjects by clinging to German habits, notions, and predilections brought from his paternal duchy, Holstein-Gottorp, though by no means shrinking from the coarseness of the vilest Russian associations. The contrast was complete, and Catharine consciously and calculatingly labored to render it striking.

It is almost painful to follow our author in his descriptions of all the exhibitions of imbecility, brutality, and disgusting licentiousness and intemperance with which the heir to the throne of all the Russias, and its occupant for a few months, afflicted his unbeloved and unloving wife. It was hardly necessary to make this record so long, and perhaps not entirely fair either, for a part of it rests on the authority of her whom Peter by turns neglected, tormented, and threatened, until she resolved on his violent removal from the path of her towering ambition. As in her 'Memoirs,' so here, the particulars are minutely stated for apologetic purposes. They are to extenuate the guilt of her conjugal infidelities and of the treasonable coup, prepared with so much premedi-

tation, by which Peter, in July, 1762, was robbed of his crown and life. There was a time when those infidelities were still half-denied by loyal historians. Catharine's own confessions—frank, petulant, and even cynically boastful—have rendered a further denial impossible, and even a professor of history salaried by the Russian Government can now more or less clearly state—at least in a work published beyond the border of the Empire—that, of the three children to whom the future Empress gave birth, Paul, her successor, father of Alexander I. and Nicholas, and great-grandfather of the reigning Czar, was the son of Saltykoff; Anna, who died an infant, the daughter of Stanislas Poniatowski; and the youngest, the erratic and dissolute Count Bobrinski, a son of Grigori Orloff ("Der Sohn Katharinas und G. Orlovs," we read on page 46). On the other hand, Catharine is warmly defended against the accusation, formerly and still lately current in histories, that the strangling of Peter, at Ropsha, a few days after his dethronement, in which Grigori Orloff's brother Alexei had the most direct part, was not only a natural epilogue to her usurpation—for enacting which nobody was punished or disgraced—but a deed unequivocally ordered by herself. The question is immaterial. Catharine certainly did nothing to prevent the bloody consummation, and she would as certainly have commanded it had her interest decidedly required it. It was perhaps only a useful crime, done before it was needed. Over the ghastly scene of the assassination our author casts a veil.

The murder of the ex-Czar Ivan, in his prison, is a parallel to that of Peter III. That unfortunate Prince was a grandnephew of the Empress Anna Ivanovna, Peter the Great's niece, who reigned from 1730 to 1740, and was by her appointed heir to the Russian throne, to reign under the regency of Biron, Duke of Courland. The Empress died before he was a year old, and his mother, Anna Karlovna, overthrowing the appointed regency, seized the reins of power in his name. A year later Anna was in her turn overthrown by Elizabeth, and sent with her husband, the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, to an island in the Dvina, near the White Sea. Ivan was imprisoned in the vicinity of St. Petersburg, and kept there in extraordinary secrecy throughout the twenty years of Elizabeth's reign. When Catharine seized the throne she had him hastily transferred from the fortress of Schlüsselburg to Kexholm, apparently in order to use his mysterious place of confinement for Peter III.; but after the tragedy at Ropsha he was returned to his old prison, where he lingered two more years in his wretchedness. The officers who guarded him were instructed never to hand him over to anybody, unless shown a direct order of the Empress herself, or of Panin, her Minister of State; and, in case an attempt should be made to deliver him by force, to slay him on the spot. Such an attempt was made by a few military conspirators in 1764, and the officers did as commanded. When the chief of the conspiracy, Mirovitch, had forced his entrance into the room of the prisoner whom he was going to reinstate on his Imperial throne, he found him on the floor—a corpse. The officers reported to Panin, Panin reported to Catharine, and the disciple of Diderot wrote in reply: "God's ways are wonderful and inscrutable"; "Providence has granted me a sign of his mercy"; "I trust to God that this attempt will be wholly revealed"; and, "As much as I desire that God may make it clear whether there are any accomplices, just so do I implore the Almighty that no innocent men shall be plunged into ruin." Whether the rack should be employed to help the Almighty in revealing the whole of the plot and saving the innocent, was a question referred to the Empress



by the Court of Inquiry, and referred back by her to the Court, for its independent decision, as a matter the consideration of which was too painful for her own excited feelings. Fortunately the Court remembered that the Empress had formerly declared herself opposed to the rack "on principle"—although Beccaria, afterward one of her favorite liberal writers, was but then publishing his *Dei delitti e delle pene*—and Mirovitch was executed untortured. The excitement caused by the affair was immense, and Catharine had to issue a manifesto in explanation of it. "She was deemed capable of using Mirovitch as a tool in carrying out the murder of the unhappy pretender, and of sending him to the scaffold in order to get rid of a dangerous sharer of the terrible secret." And such versions of events in Catharine's reign have but gradually been abandoned even by grave historians of our time. Professor Brückner calls them "monstrous fables."

Scarcely had Catharine been delivered of the danger with which the legitimate claims of the ex-Czar Ivan might have threatened her possession of the crown, when the tranquillity of her reign began to be disturbed by a succession of adventurous popular pretenders, each claiming to be Peter III., miraculously saved from the murderous hand of his adulterous consort. Gavril Krementz, in 1765, was the first of these pseudo-Peters; the most formidable was Pugatcheff, who in 1773-4 headed an insurrection of Cossacks, peasants, and non-Russian populations, which desolated the districts east of the Volga, shook the empire to its foundations, and for a time threatened Moscow itself. These phenomena in the history of Russia were not new. Who has not read of the history of the successive pseudo-Dimitris, pretenders to the throne of the extinct Ruriks, in the beginning of the seventeenth century? Each of these pretenders claimed to be the youngest son of Ivan the Terrible. Others appeared as sons of his successor, Feodor, or of Czar Vasili Shuiski. The generalizing remarks of our author on this subject have a more than common interest, throwing light as they do on essential psychological conditions of the Russian nation, which are not characteristic of its past alone.

"The measure of our knowledge of the details in criminal cases of this kind is very uneven, but it is sufficient in most of them to convince us that we have to deal with a phenomenon of social pathology. It is the mass of the people which produces such adventurers, upon whom the pretender's rôle is not seldom forced. The thought of representing a deceased prince does not always spring from the head of the pretender himself. . . . That the in many instances very numerous adherents of such reputed tzarevitches, czars, and emperors were all believers in their genuineness, is not to be presumed. They identify themselves with the cause of such criminals, because various advantages are to be achieved under their banner. Wherever there are malcontents and oppressed such notions of pretenders obtain currency. Every rumor of the appearance of a reputed ruler, or reputed relative of a ruler, is hailed with satisfaction by the masses, because it awakens a hope of an improvement in their condition. Many rumors of this kind are without any foundation in fact. Where nobody was found to act the part of a pretender, a phantom of a pretender was invented, and by this alone the desired effect was produced. Thus there was nobody among the hosts of the ill-famed robber Stenka Razin (1668-71) to assume actively the rôle of the former Patriarch Nikon, but the pointing at a boat said to carry that church dignitary was sufficient to inflame the imagination of the people, who sympathized with the exalted state convict, and to incite them to a struggle against the reigning order of things. . . .

"Such occurrences offer eloquent testimony of the misery and barbarism, the sufferings and struggles, of the people. They afford us an insight into the difficulties inseparable from a state of transition, like that involved in the transmutation of Russia from an Asiatic into a

European realm. They speak loudly of the oppression of the masses through unscrupulous, corrupt, and greedy officials. They tell of the fatality of the peasant question, solved only in the most recent time. They reflect the nomadic, Cossack-like ways of the migratory, labor-shunning bulk of the people; the savageness of the alien races; the narrow-mindedness of the sectarians; the despair of the deserters from the army, and of the runaways from transported gangs of robbers and murderers. They make clear the historical significance of the want of a regular and normal order of succession, resting on a fundamental state basis. They illustrate the demoralizing effect naturally produced on the mind of the masses by convulsing crises in the history of the state, like the *coup d'état* in the summer of 1762, or by such deeds of violence as were then perpetrated in Ropsha, and in 1764 in Schlüsselburg."

The descriptions of suffering, maladministration, and revenge, which form a part of the comment to these generalizations, are harrowing in the extreme, though the author is averse to dwelling upon horrors. The crimes perpetrated by Pugatcheff and his revolted bands were in strict proportion to the crimes of the nobility and Government which drove the brutalized peasantry to desperation and fierce rebellion; and the unsparing cruelty with which the rebellion was chastised corresponded to the fear and fury with which it had filled the rulers. Catharine, whose mainspring of action was vanity, felt humbled by this terrible unmasking before Europe of the real condition of things in her Empire, which she pretended to rule with the wisdom and humanity of a Marcus Aurelius, and the Arcadian felicity of which her Derzhavin had just been singing in pompous strains. During the course of the insurrection she was constantly urging on her generals to hasten the suppression of a movement which put her to shame before the world. To Voltaire, however, she wrote in a jocose manner about it, representing it as a petty affair, soon to be finished with the hanging of Pugatcheff, exaggerating the victories of her commanders, and belittling the rebel thief as "un sot ivrogne." In the same vein she wrote to her regular correspondent, Grimm, mocking "le marquis Pougatcheff," and predicting the speedy ending of the "farce" in floggings and a few executions. When she wrote thus, the knout and the gibbet were already in active requisition, but the end of the affair was still very far off. The scene of the "farce" was shifted from the banks of the river Ural to those of the Volga, and beyond this river westward. In Moscow, where the populace sympathized with the false Peter, extraordinary measures had to be taken to guard against an outbreak—measures which remind us of the preventives used in the same metropolis in our days against Nihilism. And there is, in fact, no little intrinsic resemblance between the spirit which pervaded the rebellious movements of 1773-74 and the destructive revolutionism of a hundred years later.

But Catharine was as fortunate in dealing with rebellion, pretendership, and conspiracy, with all domestic and foreign foes, as was Elizabeth of England, whom she also equalled, or surpassed, in energy, activity, knowledge, circumspection, cool self-possession, vanity, selfishness, and falsehood. In temper she was by far the superior of the English Queen. She was never cruel from rancor or jealousy, she was generally cheerful and inclined to merriment, fond of amusement and luxury, plain and affable, kind and complacent to all who surrounded her, and immeasurably lavish toward her favorites. In voluptuousness she was almost the equal of the Russian Elizabeth; in this respect she knew no hypocrisy. Her court, with its long succession of lovers *en ordre*, was a dazzling school of immorality. Potemkin for years ruled the Empire, and almost ruled her. She passionately

mourned the loss of Lanskoï, resigned Mamonoff to a rival, and chose in Zuboff a lover forty years her junior. She used Poniatowski, whom she had placed on the throne of Poland, as an instrument in his old age for the destruction of that country's independence. At that time she had ceased to be a reformer, a liberal law-giver, emulous of the glory of Frederick the Great. The French Revolution disgusted her with ideas of freedom and equality. Its successes enraged her, provoking her to flippant utterances on current events entirely unworthy of her wit and sagacity. A conquering Semiramis she remained to the end. Her son Paul she treated as the Semiramis of Nineveh is related to have treated her Ninys. She seems to have expected her grandson Alexander to succeed her; in his brother Constantine she saw a future Byzantine Emperor. She was fond of both, and wrote books for their instruction. She died of apoplexy, and Paul succeeded her—soon to die as her husband did. Long before her death she had composed the following epitaph for herself—a very flattering one, indeed:

"Here rests Catharine II., born in Stettin on April 21 (May 2), 1729. In the year 1744 she went to Russia to marry Peter III. At the age of fourteen she resolved on this triple task to please her consort, Elizabeth, and the nation. She omitted nothing in striving for this object. Eighteen years of *ennui* and solitude induced her to devote herself to voluminous reading. Having ascended the Russian throne, she made the good her aim, and strove to give her subjects happiness, freedom, and wealth. She was ready to pardon, and hated nobody; she was forbearing, easy going, of serene disposition; she had a republican soul and a kind heart; she possessed friends; work was easy to her, and the arts gave her pleasure."

#### AMONG THE CANNIBALS.

*Camping among Cannibals.* By Alfred St. Johnston. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THE reader who opens 'Camping among Cannibals' at the beginning and follows the narrative in its course, may be pardoned if he wonders for a time what it was the author saw in his travels to suggest or justify the title he has chosen. The first and larger portion of the book, far from gratifying any bloodthirsty curiosity which the title-page may have awakened, presents a view of South Sea Island life so bright and rosy, and so altogether lovely, that one begins almost to share the enthusiasm of the author, who, having been taught in his tender youth to thank the Lord in a hymn that he was "born an English child," is ready, after visiting Tongatabu, to take it all back and wish he had "been born a Pacific Island one."

Few voyagers who have written books about the South Seas have been so completely captivated by the charms of that far away island life as Mr. Alfred St. Johnston appears to have been during his visit to the Friendly and Samoan groups. For him it is a hopeless task to try to describe even a tithe of the beauties of these glorious islands. Words are absolutely inadequate to tell of their beauty of land, or sea, or sky. Everything is gorgeous. There is a rapturous intoxication in the very air one breathes, a sense of beauty everywhere around in earth and sea and air, that cannot possibly be described with pen and ink. He finds for the first time in his life an absolute and perfect satisfaction of his sense of color. He tells us of the soft green turf; the groves of orange trees, covered with glossy foliage and loaded with golden fruit; the coco-palms, lifting their slender stems aloft and waving gracefully their feathery branches; the crimson hybiscus, making glowing spots of color amid the shade, and the white gardenias, with whose perfume the

air is heavy, and about which large purple butterflies float languidly; of the bright surf, breaking gently upon the coral shore; the placid sea beyond, in whose clear depths strange zoöphytic forms, waving their fringes of tentacles of every gorgeous hue, bloom like ocean-flowers with wonderful tints of rose and gold and blue and purple, among which the shining and elusive fish flit in and out of mimic caves and grottoes as bright as they; of the cool of the evening, delicious after the heat of the day, when the beating of the surf upon the reef is heard with greater distinctness in the silence of the night, and the stars shine with golden radiance in the deep blue of the sky, while here and there a light shines softly through the palms, and now and then dim figures, white-robed, move hand in hand, idyllic. In this poetic, if not tropical, language the author strives vainly, as he thinks, to convey his impressions of a South Pacific paradise, coming at last to the conclusion that he has really found "the most exquisitely lovely place on the whole of God's great earth."

If the islands are lovely, the islanders are still more so. The men are charming, the women delightful:

"They are muscular, cheerful looking, and well fed; and their features are, I think, much better than the English average, being in many cases regular and fine. The nose may be rather broad at the base, but it is frequently well cut; the mouth is large and the lips a trifle full, but the teeth they disclose are strong, and white, and even, and their eyes are dark and lustrous. The women of Tonga have, I verily believe, the most beautiful eyes in the world, and they know how to use them, too. Liquid, soft, and speaking, they glance through the fringe of their silken lashes in a manner that is indescribably sweet. Their dress consists of a cloth, fastened round the waist, which hangs down below the knees; the body has no covering, and they go bareheaded. The missionaries, with their usual idiotic interference, have tried to alter this sensible dress, which is decent, even according to our artificial notions of modesty, and most admirably suited to the climate. They insist on the women wearing a sort of absurd pinafore, which is left off on every possible occasion; and some time ago a law was made that every man should wear a European dress of shirt and trousers, and leave off the charming *vala*. To enforce this iniquitous law, the manufacture of *tappa*, the native made cloth, was prohibited, so that perforce the natives had to purchase European fabrics—a thing very greatly to the advantage of the traders, through whose influence with the Minister this disgraceful state of affairs was brought about. But even the worm will turn, and this was too much for the gentle Tongan, and the law has wisely been repealed by the king.

"To such an extreme was the enforcement of this act carried, that any man seen without trousers and shirt on the turf road in Nakualofa was liable to a fine of many dollars. It seems a queer state of affairs that a man cannot walk along the very road his ancestors made, in the dress of his country, but must don the hideous garments of an intruding people. In the church at Tongatabu, where the intelligent missionary of course rules supreme, this ordinance, which forbids any man to attend the service except he comes in European costume, is still enforced. It is perhaps needless to say that the women have to wear bonnets or hats, because St. Paul said that in his opinion it was seemly for a woman to have her head covered; so these poor creatures have to discard their wreaths and natural flowers, and stick on their heads bonnets or hats adorned with feathers and artificial flowers, like any factory hand in England."

Mr. St. Johnston frequently loses his patience with the missionaries, and the more so because he seems to think that it would have been better for the islanders as a race "to have remained in their old heathen faith, which, superstitious though it was, still was good and pure enough to make brave and courageous gentlemen not afraid to die, and women with a kindliness and generosity greater than our own." They believed "that all rewards for virtue and punishments for vice come in this world, and that bu-

man virtue consisted in paying respect to the gods, nobles, and aged persons, in defending one's rights, in honor, justice, patriotism, friendship, meekness, modesty, fidelity of married women, parental and filial love, observance of religious ceremonies; in forbearance of temper and patience in suffering. Surely a good enough creed. It will be said that we teach them the beauty of self-denial and unselfishness. Why, no Tongan, however hungry or small his meal, would think of refusing to share it with another; and unselfishness was so general that it could not be thought a virtue. When Mariner lived with them it was a saying, 'As selfish as a *Papalagi*' (foreigner).

The writer of this philo-pagan volume is an Englishman—"a grovelling Englishman" he calls himself, in one of his moments of repining that he was thus born when he might have been a Tongan. A cruise among the South Pacific Islands had been the fondest dream of his youth; and finding himself in New Zealand, he seized the occasion to realize the wish of his boyhood by going as passenger in a little schooner, the *Caledonia*, bound on a trading voyage to Tongatabu and the Samoan group. It was thus that he spent some happy weeks among the Friendly and Navigators' Islands before arriving at Fiji, the stronghold of cannibalism, where he entered upon that chapter of his experience which gives his book its title.

Levuka, the capital of Fiji, is on Ovalau, one of the smaller islands of the group. It is a pretty place, with wooden houses and beautiful shrubberies.

"I was rather disappointed," says the author, "to find the place so large and civilized; but I am told that I have only to go into Colo, in the mountainous interior of Viti Levu, where I can see real savage Fijians, and where I can still run an excellent chance of being eaten. This year's *Australian Handbook* says that 'To-day finds six-sevenths of the Fijians professing Christianity, cannibalism has ceased since 1854, polygamy is abolished, and the idol worship of past ages has given place to the worship of the true God, and generally there is peace. Many of the converts are said to maintain a consistent walk; and in all a great revolution, in outward morals at least, has taken place, even if there has not been a real change of heart. These remarks scarcely apply, however, to the tribes of the interior of Viti Levu, who are variously estimated at from 7,000 to 20,000, and have hitherto held out against any advance of civilization into their country.'"

It was to see these unregenerate tribes of Colo, in the interior of Viti Levu, that the author soon conceived the idea of making a pedestrian journey across the island; and the latter portion of his book contains a very interesting account of his personal experience among the late cannibals. The Fiji Islands generally are under English rule, by reason of the sale, or cession, or other agreement made by the late native sovereign, Thakombau; but the natives of the Colo district, denying Thakombau's rights in their territory, and claiming independence, have occasionally required the exercise of force. The district, Mr. St. Johnston says, contains no white people, and none are permitted even to enter there without permission of Government, on account of the unsettled and frequently disturbed relations between the natives and the whites. This permission the author obtained, and, having left Levuka by boat, landed, three or four days later, on the island of Viti Levu, at Nadi, the starting point of his inland journey. Nadi he found a pleasant, peaceful place, although, less than five years before, the mountain people had made a descent upon it and killed and eaten many of the white residents. Thence, accompanied by a native guide, the pedestrian went in three days to Natuatucoko, a fortified village, where he found an English officer in command of a native force or garri-

son of eighty-five men, who are kept here to suppress any signs of insurrection. Here he tarried some days, his countryman's guest, and then again set out with two native guides on his way across the mountains, arriving, after a six-days' tramp, at the junction of the Wai-namala and Wai-ni-buka Rivers, whence, by canoe, he found his way to the white settlements on the Rewa, and thence, by a little steamer, back to Levuka.

During his inland journey he found himself an object of much curiosity; but, although the people are less amiable than the Friendly Tongans and Samoans, they were, with rare exceptions, kind and peaceable. Only on one occasion, at Nivudini, were Mr. St. Johnston's apprehensions for his personal safety seriously aroused, and evidently shared by his guides, at whose instance he, with them, adroitly managed to take French leave of his hungry host, who had shown rather too plainly his desire to make a feast of the Englishman. Concerning the practice of cannibalism, Mr. St. Johnston gives many details.

"Many people," he says, "have totally denied the fact of cannibalism having ever existed; they should stay here for a short time in Fiji, and hear some of the stories of the early settlers, and their opinion would soon alter. It appears that the Fijian loved human flesh for its own sake, and did not merely eat a slain enemy out of revenge, as some people have thought; although I think that very probably the absence of any animal that they could eat gave rise to the custom. The crew of every canoe or boat that was wrecked upon their shores was killed and eaten in some parts until the very last few years; and often a great man would order to be clubbed some man or woman that he considered would be good for cooking, his plea being that his 'black tooth ached,' and only human flesh could cure it. . . . So delicious was human flesh considered, that the highest praise that they could give to other food was to say, 'It is as good as *bukolo*' (a human body to be eaten). . . . I am just as sure, too, that cannibalism is not yet a thing of the past, up here, as one is led to believe it is in the greater part of Fiji; the taste for it still exists, and the taste is gratified, I doubt not, when occasion serves. Four years ago, and probably three, it was a regular and acknowledged thing in the mountains."

In fact, upon his return to Levuka the author was warmly welcomed by his friends, whose fears for his safety had been roused during his absence by news, just brought down from Nadi, that a man had been killed and eaten in Colo, leaving them in serious apprehension lest Mr. St. Johnston himself had been the victim. On the subject of cannibalism the author speaks somewhat more graciously about the missionaries than in the paragraphs already cited.

"Such things were of frequent occurrence when the first English missionaries settled here, and I must say a good word for those early Christian workers, who certainly did do a great work in a land given over to such horrors as no one who has not been here and heard the stories of eye-witnesses would believe. They fought against and conquered the deepest-seated habits and customs of a savage people, and although their teachings were perhaps not all that one could have wished for in breadth and freedom, still to have made the greater part of a large and brutal population peaceful and civilized is no small thing. The story of how the wives of two of the missionaries, when their husbands were absent, bearing their very lives in their hands, forced an entrance to the house of an unfriendly chief, and, at the utmost risk of their own, saved the lives of several out of fourteen women who were being slaughtered for the oven, makes one's heart beat quicker for the hearing even now, years after."

Mr. St. Johnston's book is generally very pleasant reading. Its style is that of a journal or current record of observations and comments. A small map or chart of these enclaves of the writer's journey would have been a valuable addition for an interested reader. There is occasionally some negligent orthography which



ought not to have escaped correction, as, for example, "decern" for discern (p. 116), "scarves" for scarfs (p. 123). In the closing chapter the author gives expression to a feeling of sorrow that the Polynesian race is fast approaching extinction.

"Sad though it be, yet true it is, that everywhere in Polynesia and Australasia where the white man has possession the same tale is told; each census taken shows a less return. In Australia a few years hence—a very few—there will be no aborigine; in Tasmania the work is already done; in New Zealand the noble Maori lingers yet, but as civilization gradually creeps into his last fastnesses, consumption and other ill-unknown before creep with it too, and a few generations hence, should nothing be done to stay it, his race will be as extinct as the dodo or his own gigantic moa. From Tahiti and the Sandwich Islands, from the north and from the south, the same tale comes; it seems as though the race were doomed. Though our exertions are for their prosperity—though we legislate for them as for ourselves, though we teach them, educate them, or what we will—the very presence of the white man seems fatal to the brown."

There is naturally something in this to touch a tender feeling of regret. Nevertheless, without being a misanthrope, one may prefer to reserve his sympathy for the millions of human kind who must needs be born to suffer in civilization, rather than expend it upon unborn heathen—and especially heathen whose native grace and charm, if we agree with Mr. St. Johnston, must soon fade away entirely before the combined influence of the foreign trader and Christian missionary.

#### PHILOSOPHY, THEOLOGY, AND EDUCATION.

*The Law of Heredity: a Study of the Cause of Variation and the Origin of Living Organisms.* By W. K. Brooks, Associate in Biology in Johns Hopkins University. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 1883. Pp. 336.

*Creeds of the Day; or, Collated Opinions of Reputable Thinkers.* By Henry Coke. London: Trübner & Co. 1883. Two vols., pp. 302 and 324.

*Body and Will: being an Essay concerning Will in its Metaphysical, Physiological, and Pathological Aspects.* By Henry Maudsley, M.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1884. Pp. 337.

*A Critical History of Philosophy.* By Rev. Asa Mahan, D.D., LL.D. Phillips & Hunt. Two vols., pp. 435, pp. 431.

*An Examination of the Philosophy of the Unknowable, as Expounded by Herbert Spencer.* By William M. Lacy. Philadelphia: B. F. Lacy. 1883. Pp. 235.

*Religious Duty.* By Frances Power Cobbe. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 1883. Pp. 311.

*L'Instruction Publique en France et les Écoles Américaines.* Par Marie-Casimir Ladreyt. Paris: Hetzel; New York: F. W. Christern. 1884. Pp. 378.

*L'Évolution Religieuse Contemporaine, chez les Anglais, les Américains, et les Hindous.* Par le Comte Gobiet d'Alviella. Paris. New York: F. W. Christern. 1884. Pp. 430.

DR. BROOKS begins by an extended history of the theories of heredity from Bonnet and Haller down to our own times, and thus develops what he terms a new theory of heredity midway between Darwin and Lamarckians like Semper. He denies that either sexual element may transmit any characters whatever: neither crossing, the homology between the ovum and the male cell, the latent transmission of secondary sexual characters, reversion, nor alternation of generations proves this, and each may be interpreted in accord with the author's

hypothesis that the male and female elements are unlike in function, and are specialized in different directions. After detailing the evidence from hybrids, variation, secondary sexual characters, the author finds the conclusive argument for his theory in the intellectual difference between men and women. Men represent the law of variation, adaptation to conditions, and the modifiable elements generally in the human species; while the female organism stands for heredity and conservatism, and is a storehouse for the instincts, habits, intuitions, and laws of conduct gained by past experience. Men thus excel in power to discover the manner in which new external relations shall be met and provided for by new adjustments, so that where feelings and experience furnish no guide man's judgment is best. This difference is the culmination of physiological differences of sex, from the lowest animal life up.

Mr. Coke's problem is how to determine the fixed basis of religious sentiment, and how to gain from it reasonable expression and satisfaction. After an exhaustive discussion of the new criticism of the Old Testament, the author concludes that its religion has no special claim to reverence, but must take its place as a fractional phenomenon in the vast integral of civilization. The New Testament is a product of esotericism, the nearest kin to which was the religion of Buddha, and fails to give us God or immortality. Indeed, says the writer, we cannot see the grandeur of the character of Jesus till we penetrate the glamour of his divinity and see his intense humanity in its defects as well as its greatness. Rational theology, which is pursued through evolutionary literature, compels the conviction that it is impossible to think that thought had a beginning, or that eternal thought is made up by a process of finite evolutions of thought. In other words, spirit is indestructible and unceasingly active from eternity to eternity, and sets in death only (like the sun) to shine on forever. Finally, Transcendental theology teaches that the order of nature is not the only or absolute order, so that to believe in a metaphysics is, as Schopenhauer is quoted as saying, the necessary creed of all the just and good. Metaphysics is poetry needful to offset the pessimism which arises from too close acquaintance with reality. This world it is the glory of Kant to have established, though he did not make it clear. Whatever may be thought of the conclusions of this book, its style will fascinate all who read it.

No one can accuse Dr. Maudsley of lacking boldness, least of all when he attempts to storm the metaphysical stronghold of free will. Self-consciousness deceives us because it illuminates results rather than causes, and hence the will seems undetermined. We think ourselves free because we feel the effort and the satisfaction following it; and were the effort always effective, consciousness would be extinguished. The volume is made up mainly of illustrations of the compelling nature of morbid physical pressure on the actions of the will, and an account of its evolution. Sociology, religious history, metaphysics, are all drawn upon in an interesting, readable way, and a most useful suggestion is reiterated that psychology must advance by the careful and detailed study of individual cases; but here, as in his other books, the author fails to come into very close quarters with his subject. His style is loose, and he crowds into his pages apparently all the stray information lying about in his mind. The contrast between this and the careful, exact statements of German alienists is the greatest possible.

Dr. Mahan has written perhaps the most comprehensive history of philosophy in any language. From a discussion of the "origin, gene-

sis, and character of all actual and conceivable systems of philosophy," he passes to the Hindu philosophy, and thence through Chinese, Persian, and Egyptian systems to the Greeks, the early and later Christians, the medieval, the English, German writers, and on to Spencer. Hegelism is characterized as "monstrous," "absolutely impossible of representation," "the most lawless conceivable," and it is said that neither Hegel nor any other thinker ever did or can believe it. Spencer's evolutionism and physiological materialism are no better. In the last few pages the author prophesies "the future of these godless philosophers." The whole is preceded by a critique of the human faculties, and the book throughout is pervaded by such a spirit of absolute certainty and finality that, with sufficient faith in the author's infallibility, the reader will have little further doubt respecting the deepest problems that have hitherto vexed speculative minds.

The books examining or refuting Herbert Spencer now make an imposing library. That agnosticism can never be proved, as Mr. Lacy first argues, we believe Mr. Spencer himself would fully admit, for it is only a postulate in his system, and he has admitted that it is more logical to say the Unknown than the Unknowable. This book is a very favorable specimen of its class, and ends with the usual reconciliation between science and religion. Nothing could be a better discipline for a student of philosophy than to write so careful and methodic a book, but we have read a great part of it without finding anything essentially new upon the vexed question to which it is addressed.

Miss Cobbe's little book now reprinted is, to our thinking, about the most helpful to the average reader that she has written. That sacrifice, perjury, hypocrisy, persecution, etc., are distinctly religious, as contrasted with moral offences, no one would nowadays assert, but religious duties, such as adoration, prayer, faith, self-consecration, are far more distinct from those of a moral nature. On the basis of theism to which she so ardently holds, the religious duties and offences become very real, and, with the somewhat psychological interpretation she so happily suggests, very natural.

In January, 1880, the eminent philanthropist, M. Isaac Pereire, offered 100,000 francs to be divided into four series of prizes, for the best treatises on four topics, one of which was, "Better systems of education in all grades." From among 800 memoirs, that of Madame Ladreyt was one of twenty awarded a prize by a jury of fourteen public men. The greater part of the book is devoted to American systems, from primary to professional, and with some description of several of the larger Eastern institutions from personal observation. Amherst, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and several colleges and universities are sketched in a rapid, tactful, and surprisingly correct way for a foreign lady (of American birth, to be sure), and the book must be very instructive to her countrymen, to whom, till the report of the French Commission in 1876, almost nothing was known of our educational system.

The last volume on our list is divided into three parts, which treat of religious progress in England, the United States, and India respectively. Of the details of present religious work in this country and England, and, we judge, in India also, the author possesses surprising knowledge. His sympathies are very liberal, and the book is written and printed in admirable style.

A SCIENTIFIC STANDARD OF GRAIN  
VALUES.

*A Bushel of Corn.* By A. Stephen Wilson, author of 'The Botany of Three Historical Records,' 'The Unity of Matter,' etc., etc. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1883.

No human institutions have been more enduring than the simple standards of weight and measure by which the daily commerce of the race is ruled. The "propensity to truck, barter, or exchange," which, as Adam Smith says, is common to all men and to be found in no other race of animals, requires these standards as the condition of its exercise. Every sale is the result of a comparison of estimates, and every comparison supposes a standard. The "value" with which economists are principally concerned is value in exchange; a thing is worth what it will fetch of something else. But, logically, the "intrinsic" value, or value in use, is prior to exchange value, and in the main determines it. What men seek by their traffic is chiefly to gratify their physical desires: they exchange bread for clothing and shelter; and it is plain that their exchanges will be fairest and most satisfactory when their standards of exchange show exactly what amount of the desired gratification is obtained by each party. Mr. Wilson's investigation is directed to showing how far this desirable end is attained by the standards used in the most important of all branches of trade—the traffic in those grains which constitute the principal food of mankind. Any error or uncertainty here is attended with such immense and far-reaching results, that its detection is a very material benefit to the race; and a careful examination of this book has convinced us that the author has earned the praise that is given to him that makes two blades of grass grow where but one grew before.

Although not necessary to his purpose, Mr. Wilson cannot resist devoting his introductory chapter to a short but very learned and very interesting history of the bushel measure. His researches show that the imperial bushel established in 1825 was simply a return to old Roman standards, which, although often proscribed by law, had never ceased to be generally used. The English pint was the Roman sextar, and the Scots pint was three sextars. Avoirdupois weight, or iron weight, was the Roman weight and the old weight of England. Troy weight (a half-translation of the Norman *droit poids*, as shown by the forms *trois weight*, *troi weight*) represents the attempt of the Normans to force their standards upon the English—an attempt which succeeded as to the precious metals, but which entirely failed to affect the daily transactions of the common people. It appears from Fleta that the bulk of eight pounds of wheat was equal to a gallon. A pint of wheat therefore weighed a pound; and when the existing imperial standards were under consideration, and it was resolved to make the gallon equal in bulk to ten pounds of water, it brought the pint back to the old Roman standard of twenty avoirdupois ounces. This reasoning is confirmed by the fact that the Scots measures recognized in 1618 correspond closely with the modern English standards; and the "imperial measures" are thus unwittingly the measures of imperial Rome.

With enormous labor, the results of which are given in elaborate tables, the author next proceeds to consider how far the process of measuring can be relied upon as indicating the weight of grain. We can state only a few of the more important of his conclusions. In the first place, a shallow bushel measure, although it holds the same weight of water, holds a less weight of

grain than a deep bushel, grain being an easily compressible substance. For the same reason, when grain is pressed down and shaken in measuring, a bushel will contain a greater weight than when the grain is gently sifted into the measure. There are differences in the weight of the same crop of grain in different months, and much more serious differences in the weight of the crops of different years. Thus, in a term of thirteen years, it is found that the quarter (eight bushels) of wheat varies in weight some 26 pounds, the quarter of barley some 32 pounds, and that of oats some 18 pounds. These are the differences between the average weights of these grains in different years; in particular cases they rise to 88 pounds for wheat, 112 pounds for barley, and 120 pounds for oats. Again, the measure-weight of grain depends to a considerable extent upon the kind of dressing that it receives.

"If a stack of barley is thrashed with the flail, the weight of the bushel may be 50 pounds; if thrashed with an ordinary farm machine, the weight may be 53 pounds; if hard thrashed with steam machinery, the weight may be 56 or 58 pounds. There can be no doubt that since the introduction of thrashing machinery a quarter of barley has advanced in alimentary value much beyond its ancient standard. This advance is probably not overstated at 8 or 10 per cent., and is an economic fact affecting the proper comparison of ancient and modern prices."

It is commonly supposed that the drier a stock of grain is, the heavier will a bushel of it weigh. Mr. Wilson's experiments show that this is a mistake. When grain has been wet and then dried, although its alimentary quality may be unaffected, the weight of a bushel will be diminished. The seeds are swollen by the water, and as a spiral spring of soft wire when over-drawn never regains its original compactness, so a grain of wheat remains permanently larger after the water has been expelled. An order for barley of 58 pounds the bushel might be executed with a stock containing either 15 per cent. or 37 per cent. of water. In the author's opinion the uncertain element of moisture has spoiled more of the miller's calculations than all the variations of quality put together. It appears, therefore, that weight, although more satisfactory than measure, by no means affords a trustworthy standard of the alimentary quality of grains. When the varieties of the different grains are considered, these uncertainties become still more serious.

With a view to establish more definite conclusions than at present exist as to the relative percentages of meal or kernel to be found in the different varieties of oats, Mr. Wilson has examined about fifty of these varieties, and decorticated about 200,000 seeds. In this labor he decorticated also his thumbs, wore out two brass pincers, and was obliged to fall back upon those of steel. The form of the grain and the character of the husk are the principal causes of the difference between the measure-weights of different varieties. This is very well shown by illustrations representing Canadian and White Tartarian oats lying in their ordinary state of compactness in boxes with glass fronts. The form of the Canadian seed enables it to fill the measure solidly, while the form of the Tartarian is such as to leave much space vacant. Hence the Canadian oat weighs 50 pounds to the bushel, and the Tartarian only 38 pounds. Nevertheless, the percentage of kernel is about the same in both. In fact, the Canadian oat has the highest measure-weight and the lowest percentage of kernel of all the samples.

It might seem that the results obtained by Mr. Wilson, although of scientific interest, depend upon such tedious and difficult experiments that farmers and millers cannot afford to follow him. This, however, is far from being the case, as he

is at the pains to point out how, by the exercise of a very little judgment, any one may ascertain quite definitely the alimentary value of any sample of grain. He has also constructed some tables of "equivalents" which can be used by any intelligent farmer. The following example illustrates their use, and at the same time indicates the conditions that must be taken into account in any careful estimate of grain. Supposing that a producer has thrashed out two fields of oats, one of the Pedigree Canadian variety, the other of the Pedigree Potato variety.

"In each case the acre has produced 6 quarters, but while the Canadian weighs 50 pounds the bushel, the Potato weighs only 44 pounds. Now, while he does not believe much in this difference as a test of quality, he is bound to believe in it as a test of quantity; and throwing both acres into cents, the Canadian presents 24.00 and the Potato 21.12. Both are found to contain 15 per cent. of moisture; and the Canadian shows 67 per cent. of kernel, while the Potato shows 75%. Looking at the proper junctions in the table, he finds that 113.26 of Canadian are equal to 100.50 of Potato; and, dividing 24.00 cents by 113.26, he finds the Canadian equal to 21.19 standard units—both crops, so far as meal is concerned, being practically the same—the 2.400 pounds of Canadian being no better than 2,112 pounds of Potato."

The quantity of grain dealt in in the great markets is now so vast that the aggregate results of the errors and imperfections of the present methods of estimating values are extremely formidable. We commend this book to the careful consideration of those agriculturists who believe that there is a science of farming, and of those dealers who expect to prosper not by speculating in "futures," but by furnishing their customers with the best that the market affords.

*Silvia Dubois* (now 116 years old): a Biography of the Slav who Whipt her Mistress and Gained her Freedom. By C. W. Larison, M.D. Ringwood, N. J.: The Author. 1883.

BIOGRAPHIES of Northern slaves are rare. Except the one before us, we recall no other besides Sojourner Truth's, a New York bondswoman, the "Isabella" of the Matthias imposture. As this remarkable person approached her end, her age became so elastic as to surpass a century, though she certainly never came within ten years of it. The birth year of Silvia Dubois, on the other hand, seems pretty well established, by tradition and record, and we are disposed to believe Dr. Larison when he says, of her sitting for her picture at his request and charge—

"It is not likely that so old a woman has ever before set for a photograph; and it is not likely that so old a wun will ever present her face to the artist's camera. Immediately after taking the negativ for Silvia's pictur the artist adjutted the camera to the face of Elizabeth, the youngest dater and constant companiun ov our heroine. Thus a woman in the 78th yer ov her ag, and her nuther in the 116th yer ov [her] ag, wer fotograff on the same da."

Personally, her age is the chief interest which attaches to Silvia. She is a common old woman, living in a wild and vicious neighborhood, and her talk is seasoned with vulgarity. Dr. Larison took it down in shorthand, and reproduces it correctly as to facts, but with discrimination as to phraseology, omitting here for decency, and retaining there for artistic effect.

"The narrativ abounds in profanity," he says, "an element that is foren to me, and wun that I most cordyaly despise, and sincerly deprecate. But Silvia is a profan negree; her langwag alwas abounds in profanity; and, ters and forcible as it is, castigat it ov its profan wurd and it is flat and meingless, and uterly fails to convey the idea intended, or to revel her character. In the narativ, my am is mor to sho the character, forc and spirit ov independenc ov the heroine, than to mak out a long lin ov yers, or to tel with hom she dwelt. To accomplish this, I must us thos wurd and frases pecniar to herself, hwich alon ar adequat to the task befor me."



With much humor the author expatiates afterwards upon "Silvia's familiarity with the title with which Jehova is wont to be adrest," and her "by no means limited noledg ov that uther being cald the Devil"; but, as we have said, he is judicious, and not offensive in his reporting. The narrative has undoubted value as a picture of slave and non slave life, of popular customs and manners, both in New Jersey and in Pennsylvania, in the early years of the Republic. The singular part of it is that the feat here celebrated, of Silvia's having turned upon her mistress—which, as recently as a quarter of a century ago, would have been judged, even at the North, outrageous and San Domingoish—was condoned with freedom by her master. Very likely his relations to his slave were such as to instigate his wife's cruelty towards her, which was that of "the very devil himself." When, before this event, Silvia sought to escape the consequences of getting drunk by feigning colic, her mistress, in much alarm, deserted her "big cumpany," and placed the girl on a trundle-bed in her own room:

"I cashusly squirmed around to se wether enybody was about, and thar sat misy, fanning me. I cashusly opend my ys [eyes] just the lest bit, to se hou she lokt; she lokt very pityful. I was to drunk to laf; but 'My God,' thot I, 'if yu only neu hwat I am doing, yu'd thro that fan awa and giv me hel.'"

The journeyings to and from Silvia's looped cabin afford Dr. Larison a good opportunity of using his excellent descriptive powers, and at the close one may profess to be pretty well acquainted with the section of New Jersey surveyed. The orthography of the book is such as we have given samples of, minus the diacritic marks, for which our typographical resources are inadequate. The author is a reformer, who aims at the grand ideal—"hwen wun caracter wil reprezent but wun fon; and wun fon is represented by wun caracter." He prints the rules adopted by the Committee on the Reform of English spelling, but does not follow their advice in every particular, because he thinks it either not well founded or not practicable; and he says, correctly, in our opinion, "the abuv ruls, god as tha ar, if usd, wil mak an English orthografy very litl beter than the wun hitherto in us. Inded, to do much in the improvment ov English orthografy we must hav a beter alfabet." We need hardly expose the defects of his own. The desideratum is, first, a world phonetic alphabet, established by the consensus of the learned; then, reform strictly on the lines of this—progress being slow if need be, but *nulla vestigia retrorsum*.

If anything further were needed to make this little book a great curiosity, it would be the two woodcuts of the hut which the centenarian inhabits; especially if they are the domestic product of the "Academy of Science and Art" over which the author presides. Silvia's portrait is much better work, and is, indeed, good enough.

*Memoir of Thurlow Weed.* By his Grandson, Thurlow Weed Barnes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

IN reviewing Mr. Weed's autobiography, to which this is a concluding volume, some regret was expressed that the autobiographer had been so reticent in regard to the inside history of New York politics, and particularly in regard to the birth, life, and tragic dissolution of the firm of Seward, Weed & Greeley. It seems to be the object of this memoir to fill up this and other similar gaps in the autobiography; and the work is done quite as satisfactorily as it could have been done by any second hand. Mr. Greeley long ago had his innings: his 'Recollections of a Busy Life' have already given the junior

partner's version of the firm's vicissitudes. Now it is Mr. Weed's innings, and his representative certainly does some remarkable scoring for him. Even from Mr. Greeley's own point of view, it was a question whether he was of more service than mischief to the party which he honored with his support; from Mr. Barnes's point of view there is not even a question.

This volume will be as interesting to the generation which is now in active familiarity with American politics as the appearance of a living Eosaurus would be to the student of natural history. It is not merely that it is a memoir of a palaeozoic politician, but that its author sympathizes so acutely with all the purposes, the methods, and the prejudices of his subject. It is interesting to read again this story of a time when political struggles were a passionate battle, when Weed could weep and Schoolcraft die of grief because Seward was not nominated at Chicago. It is interesting to study the mental workings of a trusted political guide, who could suggest the bringing about of resumption of specie payments by a forcible suppression of time bargains for gold, and that not by the comparatively gentle method of clapping the gold gamblers into jail for ninety days, but through the medium of vigilance committees and lynch law. It is interesting to trace, in the extracts from his articles and letters since 1867, the evolution of those two equally unanswerable objections to civil-service reform, that it "ignores the principle that, in a republican form of government, all the offices of the government should be within the reach of all its citizens," and that "the demand for life tenures in office conflicts with vital principles of our form of government." But we submit, with all deference to the author's rights of treatment, that it is simple cruelty to Mr. Weed's memory to saddle upon him the invention of the great "conundrum" objection to civil-service reform, and worse than cruelty to devote a whole page of fine print to the "conundrums" which aspirants to the civil service are required to answer. A judicious hand will draw the line somewhere, and the line might have been drawn here without sacrificing the truth to the interest of biography.

Thurlow Weed's political training, his fixed habits of political thought and action, compelled him to look with a sort of angry contempt on any effort to take the civil service out of politics. The power to dispose of the civil service seemed to him as vital to party organization as the commissariat is to an army; and he felt toward the civil-service reformer much as Sherman would have felt toward an officer who should have proposed to him to begin the march through Georgia with one day's provisions. The fact that he and men like him had always used the civil service, with military exactness, as means toward the attainment of ends which they meant for the country's good, unfitted him for gauging the increased damage and danger resulting from the use of the civil service by men with unqualifiedly selfish purposes. It was historically fitting and complete that in his old age he should bring the beginning and the ending of the spoils system into glaring contrast; that, at the last Republican Convention which he attended, the Saratoga Convention of 1876, he should run counter to the Conkling machine. He went, as he had always gone to such gatherings, to advise with others for the benefit of a party; he found a generation, the natural outgrowth of his own system, which cared more for the Machine leader and representative than for either party or principles. For him there was no longer even an affectation of courtesy. "Any attempt by Mr. Weed," said a newspaper of the time, "to outland Mr. Conkling will be very roughly dealt with by very rough men." And

yet it was to these "very rough men," the Jakes and Mikes and Barneys of city and country, that he continued to insist on intrusting the civil service, for fear a loss of "interest" in politics would result in the establishment of a monarchy.

The memoir is largely devoted, as is natural, to the numerous cases in which Mr. Weed exhibited his unusual acuteness in forecasting popular feeling, and in adjusting party tactics to fit it. All the space which the author has given to this part of his work is fully justified by the almost unbroken success of his subject; it was not often that Thurlow Weed assumed the responsibility for any such mare's nest as that in which the "Benjamin" letter was discovered. But there are numberless touches of character, brought out incidentally, which are needed to show even the present generation that Thurlow Weed was much more than a professional party manager; that those traits by which he acquired and retained his hold upon men were above and beyond party, and that he was always a man to be respected and loved as well as obeyed. It is impossible to read Mr. Greeley's childish letter dissolving the partnership in 1854, and Mr. Weed's dignified, temperate, and kindly reply to it, without understanding why offices were always at the service of the latter and always denied to the former. In spite of Thurlow Weed's notoriously lavish generosity to the unfortunate, there has always been in some minds a vague notion that he had used his quasi-public position to acquire that competence on which he retired years before his death. Of course, any one who has knowledge of the great returns from a successful newspaper enterprise, needs no further explanation of Mr. Weed's modest acquisitions. There may be others to whom such an explanation is necessary, and Mr. Weed has furnished it in his valedictory editorial in the semi-centennial issue of the *Albany Evening Journal*:

"When the *Journal* was established, and for several subsequent years, I gave my time and thoughts wholly to the advancement of our cause. Aware of my indifference to pecuniary matters, my friends Seward and Whittlessey looked after my worldly affairs. At the instance of those gentlemen, the proprietors of the *Journal* increased my salary as editor annually from \$750 in 1830 to \$2,000 in 1838. Subsequently, when the *Journal* became the State paper and I a partner, Mr. King kindly became my pecuniary guardian, taking the same care of my interests as of his own. Under his auspices, during the next twenty years, he saw, as he used to say with much gratification, 'the acorn grow into an oak.' It is to his devoted friendship that I am largely indebted for the competency which renders the evening of life free from toil and care."

It is but just to add that this volume closes with an index, covering both volumes, whose fulness and convenience are all that could be desired.

*The Hessians, and the Other German Auxiliaries of Great Britain in the Revolutionary War.* By Edward J. Lowell. Harper & Brothers. 1884.

THIS book shows a remarkable progress in the historical literature of the American Revolution. While the majority of works on that subject are of a rather sentimental character, Mr. Lowell shows a just appreciation of men and events, and represents them in the light and character of their time. As a people, we fancy that we pay our Revolutionary heroes a greater tribute of respect by divesting them of human attributes; and this idealizing has seriously impeded the comprehensive and critical investigation of the history of that period. Unqualified worship is always accompanied by equally unqualified condemnation,

and the poor vilified Hessians correspond to the apotheosized Continentals.

We are glad to state that Mr. Lowell's book does not belong to this order of historiography. He has done his best to present to the public a really trustworthy work, in creditable distinction from those who have treated the same subject in the English language. Apart from inferior writers like Abbott, Spencer, and school-book manufacturers, even so prominent and popular an author as Irving, in his 'Life of Washington,' gives a rather superficial sketch of the Hessians and their leading men, and tries to make the name of a brave and excellent soldier (although a bad commander), Colonel Rall, a laughing-stock for his readers, while he gives no idea of his importance and valor—as shown, for instance, at the storming of Fort Washington. Rall's aide-de-camp, Lieutenant Biel, was not at all a wag, either, as Mr. Irving states, and the whole episode appears to be inserted for the purpose of concealing the author's want of acquaintance with the pertinent facts.

German historians have written more judiciously on the Hessians. Friedrich Kapp, as early as the summer of 1856, first called attention to the subject in a paper read before the New York Historical Society, which forms the basis of his later work, 'Der Soldatenhandel Deutscher Fürsten nach Amerika (1775-1783).' He, however, would never have been able to write this book and publish it in two editions if he had not been assisted by Mr. Bancroft, who gave him access to his rich store of original documents, expressly copied from the London, Paris, and Berlin archives. Mr. Bancroft, so far as this subject entered into the plan of his work, has treated it with much care and gusto, and it is surprising that Mr. Lowell almost ignores these researches. Mr. Kapp, on the other hand, wrote with a single eye to a political purpose. He wished to rouse the hatred and contempt of the German Liberals against the successors of those petty dealers in human flesh, and in this he succeeded admirably, without, however, distorting or omitting historical facts from his narrative. Mr. Lowell has freely drawn from Kapp, but although on the whole fair in quoting his authorities, he on some important occasions omits to give him credit—as, for instance, for the characteristic letter written on October 24, 1777, by Frederick the Great to his nephew the Margrave of Anspach-Bayreuth, in which he forbids him to send his mercenaries through the Prussian dominions. This letter was discovered by Mr. Kapp in the Gemmingen Papers, and first published by him. In his political appreciation of the trade, Mr. Lowell stands on the shoulders of the German writer and of the authorities quoted by him. Or could Mr. Lowell have had access to K. H. Lang's writings, or to Schloezer's 'Briefwechsel' and 'Staatsanzeigen,' of which, so far as we know, only single copies can be found in all the libraries of the country? Besides these sources, our author avails himself of the writings of the late Colonel Eelking, which on some minor points are very good, but not quite accurate, especially where they treat of English reports, as Eelking did not understand a word of English. Mr. Lowell's merits as an historian chiefly consist in enlarging the space which the Hessians have thus far occupied in the eyes of American observers. He fills a gap, by not suffering them to disappear in the ranks of the British army after their landing in America, but, on the contrary, follows them in the history of the several corps, and in their participation in the different British engagements and expeditions. Eelking is inaccurate in this respect, and Kapp does not mention these reports, as he started

from a different point of view. Mr. Lowell is always just and fair in his judgment, and combines sound historical training with an excellent style.

On some minor points, however, we cannot help finding fault with him. Hesse-Cassel had only 275,000 (instead of 300,000-400,000) inhabitants during the American war, and Brunswick only 150,000 inhabitants. Frederick William I. of Prussia was much better and of far greater importance than his daughter, the Margravine, represents him. Without him the success of Frederick the Great would not have been possible. Ranke and Carlyle are correct in this respect. Promotion from the ranks was as impossible at that time as it is now here, where only West-Pointers are made officers. The character of the majority of the rank and file in those times precluded the idea of bestowing commissions on the privates. Even to-day, in the German army, privates and sergeants cannot be promoted to officerships if they have not passed an examination, do not belong to good families, and have not, apart from their wages, a certain income. It is a pity that Mr. Lowell has not inserted the interesting narrative of Sergeant Doehla, an Anspacher, about the surrender of Yorktown, which he could have found in Kapp's English edition of the 'Life of Steuben' (N. Y. 1859, pp. 459-464).

In the way of new information Mr. Lowell has interwoven into his narrative twelve manuscripts, consisting of journals, letters, and reports written by Hessian or Waldeck officers and in the library of the Cassel estates. What he gives from the Marburg Papers is not new and is quite defective. He can never himself have been in that old university town, for if he had consulted its Provincial Archives, he would have found such rich stores of documentary evidence that several weeks' examination of them would not have sufficed. When Mr. Kapp published the first edition of his 'Soldatenhandel' he stated in its preface that he had been unable to gain access to the papers in question, for the reason that they had been secreted by the late Elector himself at the Castle of Wilhelmshöhe near Cassel. Since then the Hessian dynasty has ceased to reign, and the former Electorate now forms a part of a Prussian province; but, in spite of a thorough search for years, no papers could be discovered at Wilhelmshöhe. Dr. Koennecke, however, the able keeper of the Marburg Archives, several years after the annexation, was so fortunate as to find in an attic of the castle, among other important state papers, some thirty big volumes relating to the trade in soldiers. The greater and military part of them, indexed by Colonel von Sturmfeeder, was sent to the library of the staff of the army in Berlin, where they still are; the smaller number is kept at Marburg. If Mr. Lowell had read the Berlin correspondence of the *Nation* of June 30, 1882 (in No. 892, August 3, 1882) he would have been able to do still more justice to his subject. The volumes now in the Marburg Archives not only contain the diplomatic negotiations of the Landgrave and of his Minister Schlieffen with the English Foreign Department, and the treaties founded thereon, but also every day's orders issued by the Landgrave to his generals and colonels in America and the letters written by him, the answers and reports on the condition and conduct of the troops, and well drawn maps and sketches of the localities having relation to the Hessian movements. Three big volumes are filled with the proceedings before a court-martial on the capture of Trenton. The papers, now in Berlin, refer chiefly to the transactions of Hesse-Hanau with England. They give all the particulars about the financial transactions of the contracting parties. Another interesting

part of these papers forms a collection of about a hundred letters written by officers to their relatives at home, who were directed by the Prince to send them to him for his perusal. They give some charming sketches of American society at the time, and the elegance of manners prevailing in the old colonial families. These letters bear the imprint of reality and truth, and are the more valuable as their writers, although enemies and foreigners, are involuntary witnesses and reporters of the real state of American life. All these documents ought to be copied and secured for a large American library. Apart from their military and historical importance, they are of the highest value for the future historian of the civilization and the social development of the United States.

*Record of Family Faculties.—Life History Album.* By Francis Galton, F.R.S. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

THE word "heredity" is fast coming to be used in a loose sense not unlike that formerly given to "vitality." Many are confusing a biological law with an actual force, and this or that physical or mental trait is assigned to heredity as something not altogether understood, yet fully capable of explaining much that cannot be assigned to any other cause. From our former point of view, that man was to be considered and judged as an individual, the pendulum is swinging to the other extreme, that he is merely one link in a series involuntarily inheriting and transmitting a number of peculiarities. The ethics of a general belief of this kind would make men more lenient in judging themselves, while it would increase their sense of responsibility to their descendants—two rather diverse influences. The whole personal interest of this question can be resolved into this: What have I received from, what can I give to, the line to which I belong? In 'Hereditary Genius,' Mr. Galton gave us the mathematics of the answer, but stopped far short of bringing the science to what is known as the test of prediction. If, as he anticipates in the investigation proposed in the works before us, this gap can in some degree be lessened, we may be able to "foresee much of the latent capacities of a child in mind and body, of the probabilities of his future health and longevity, and of his tendencies to special forms of disease by a knowledge of his ancestral precedents."

Long experience of Mr. Galton as a statistician is here very evident. The 'Life History Album' is designed for the minute biological data of a single lifetime, just as the 'Record of Family Faculties' is for a comprehensive collection of family data. In principle they are alike. Mr. Galton edits the former as Chairman of a Sub-Committee of the British Medical Association. It is most ingeniously planned for the annual registration of life and medical history and anthropometric measurements, such as acuteness of the senses, strength tests, changes in hair and eyes, etc., occasional photographs, and a record of marriage and children. Upon stature and weight-charts you may compare each year of your growth with curves representing the English average, and here you may also see the temporary or permanent deflections caused by illnesses. Reaching your physical and mental climax, you record your progress on the down grade to the seventy-fifth year, and, in the general *sans* state, we can imagine that questions answered with alacrity at twenty-five will become somewhat severe. For example: "What is the greatest distance in feet and inches at which a watch can be heard?" or "Is there any noticeable dulness or acuteness of smell, taste, and touch?"



The 'Record' is the author's own undertaking, and is the basis of the most searching heredity inquiry hitherto attempted. The scope of the work is four generations, which are reckoned as follows: "On the side of the contributor there are his two parents, four grandparents, an average of three uncles and aunts on each of the two sides, three brothers or sisters, and himself: this makes sixteen persons. There is another set of sixteen for the relatives of his wife in the same degrees. Lastly, I allow an average of four children." A single family history, therefore, involves the extensive collection of thirty-six or more life histories. To each of these a page is assigned, including sixteen questions; the latter indicating that biology is taken in its widest sense to embrace, first, conditions of life, second, personal description, mental as well as physical, third, medical life history. Under the first set are birth, occupation, town and country residence, size of family, mode of life; the middle set includes anthropometric measurements, also mental powers and energy, peculiarities of character and temperament, artistic and allied aptitudes; the third set covers rather minute medical details, and at this point many will probably echo the sentiments of the *Spectator* critic, that one would rather forget the ills that flesh is heir to. The author appreciates the labor of filling one of these records, and offers to his countrymen a large amount in prizes for the fullest and most authentic. He has already, in his 'Inquiries into Human Faculty,' proposed the science Euegenics for race improvement, and he is, perhaps, more sanguine of unearthing some of its now mysterious laws than many of his readers will be. In fact, it will require somewhat of the spirit of research to enter one's family closet with the unsparing truthfulness this 'Record' demands, even when we are assured that the anonymous will be strictly preserved. Yet we venture to assert that the present scientific enthusiasm in England insures the quantitative success of the undertaking at the outset. It has already exceeded Mr. Galton's anticipations. A prediction of the results in quality is quite another matter; that they will tell us a great deal we know already there can be no doubt, and, judging by the perfection and thoroughness of the method, we may look for much more. However honest the effort, it will be a difficult matter to fill one of these records without unconsciously noting down resemblances, to the gradual exclusion of differences, in family character, and considerable allowance for this unavoidable tendency should be made in the averages. One of the least results a layman may hope for is that the author's candid treatment of his returns will somewhat revive our confidence in our own individuality, which has been much shaken of late by "heredity" extremists.

*The Field of Disease: A Book of Preventive Medicine.* By Benjamin Ward Richardson. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea's Sons.

CERTAIN cynics maintain that the vast medical charities of civilization are chiefly hot-beds for the culture of retrogressive physical types. In a utilitarian view it is no advantage to prolong, at home or in hospitals, the lives of weaklings who will leave a progeny to be nursed and in turn to spread disease and disability. But the absolute prevention or avoidance of physical evil is another matter than its perpetuation in a mitigated form. The care of the sick is one problem. It may be better for the race to let the tainted and the intrinsically feeble go, to abandon them to the rude forces in spite of which the fittest survive. It is another question to keep the sound well, to shield the vigorous from

external danger and disease. The avoidance and especially the prevention of such evils are essentially modern ideas. Our forefathers accepted distempers as they did the weather. A superior power, whose authority could not be interfered with nor its intentions divined, but who might be persuaded or placated, allotted both. One might flee from the plague as he would from an English winter, but he could prevent neither. Protection was invoked equally from lightning, from pestilence, and from famine—evils essentially superhuman in their control. Many still act as though private indisposition and the epidemics of a country side are mysterious visitations, not logical consequences of antecedent conditions. But the comfortable doctrine of the prevention of disease is spreading, and much of the attention formerly given to its treatment is diverted to the discovery and destruction or avoidance of its cause, and to the popular propagation of this knowledge.

A well-written book on preventive medicine for the average reader ought to meet with instant success, and this large volume on the *Field of Disease* at first appears to be a competent topographical survey and guide through that nether region. It is good, but it is not good enough. There is little rhetorical condensation, and there are no golden omissions, while over such a range a great deal might be judiciously left out. What omissions there are are chiefly odd in view of much that has been retained. Five hundred of the large pages supply the lay reader with a trifle of the dangerous "little knowledge," much of it entertaining but not very intelligible without some instruction. But old women of either sex will find that their disposition to meddle with the perverted forces of life is not encouraged. Dr. Richardson, who is an eminent and enthusiastic English physician, begins his book with the distinct and wise announcement (p. 21) that he has "nothing to say in it that has any relation to the cure of disease." But unfortunately the Royal College of Physicians has enumerated 1,146 variations from health as the catalogue of disease, and this is a commentary upon the nature of each. So space is given to atelectasis and myocarditis, typhilitis and hypnosis, skoliosis and pompholyx, and half a thousand other formidable or trivial or rare affections, whose names may haunt the student, but which make a very small showing in vital statistics. It is astonishing how many pitfalls there are in the way through life and into how few men fall. Two-thirds of the book will supply practically nothing to medical men and will bewilder most others. But the average reader will relish and may absorb a part of the final two hundred pages, while the very last sixty are strictly those treating of preventive medicine and are very valuable.

It was to be anticipated that so large and all-embracing a work would have errors and omissions, but the nature of some of these is, to say the least, curious. For instance, mania a potu is given as a synonym of dipsomania (p. 349), and white swelling as the popular equivalent of phlegmasia dolens (p. 144). The spleen "lying beneath the liver on the left side" (p. 228), and the liver placed "in the upper part of the abdomen immediately below the midriff" (p. 206), are examples of a vagueness that misleads. That tetanus but not trismus neonatorum should be noted, bunions but not corns, the censure of wet soil but not of rubbish heaps as building sites, the general effects of passion, but not, for instance, its special influence upon the milk secretion—are illustrations of minor incompleteness. The phraseology or the proof-reading is sometimes at fault, as in the repeated use of "industrial" for workers; in "preventative" (p. 558);

and, unworthy of a Philadelphia medical press, in "Addenill" for Addinell Hewson, and "McDonnell" for McDowell, the original ovarioto-mist.

Dr. Richardson makes a strong indictment against alcohol, charging it with 1,000 deaths a week in the United Kingdom alone, and he gives a decided support to the Contagious Diseases Act. On the whole, it is very well that this book, the first comprehensive one of its class, has been written; but in its present form it is not worthy of the author's just reputation. A patient revision should elevate it to the place that its theoretical importance demands.

*An Outline History of Painting, for Young People and Students.* With numerous and complete indexes, and numerous full page illustrations. By Clara Erskine Clement. White, Stokes & Allen.

THE authoress of this, which may be called a minor history, has not remembered that a book for beginners ought to be more exact and simple in its statements than one for mature students. An error incorporated in the foundation is less easily corrected than one in the cornice. The opening paragraphs contain the following: "In speaking of art, we often contrast the useful or mechanical arts with the fine arts; by these terms we denote the difference between the arts which are used in making such things as are necessary and useful in civilized life, and the arts by which ornamental and beautiful things are made. The fine arts are architecture, sculpture, etc." Now, the art of stone-cutting and laying "is used in" architecture, which, according to the authoress, is a useless art, and house building, which is a necessary one; bronze working is as necessary for the plain brass tongs as for the aesthetic pair, wood-cutting as much at home in carving as in furniture; the art of hammering metal, which is one of the bases of civilization, is to be used in making the New York barber Colossus. There is, in fact, no point at which we can draw the line implied in such a distinctive definition, and it is therefore false.

The authoress need not have considered it necessary to vamp all the old fables of the painters' lives, as that Titian was, as a child, so hard up for pigments that he squeezed the juices of plants to get his colors—evident nonsense. And the stories of the rivalries of Zeuxis and Parrhasius, which, if they had been true, would only have proved that the painters were both very poor ones, might well have been eliminated from a history for beginners. Of Tintoret she says: "He had a light, brilliant touch; his color was exquisite, and his arrangement of his subjects was very picturesque"—which, so far as it appeals to beginners and young people, is thrown away, and if technical is nonsensical. The use of studio slang for young people who know nothing of the shop is inadmissible. Of Richard Wilson we read that "he was important, not so much for what he painted as for the fact that he was one of the earliest landscape painters among English artists," which is far from the case in either point. Of Turner we have the information, among much other inaccuracy and absurdity, that he "refused five thousand pounds" for the "Dido building Carthage" and the "Decline of the Carthaginian Empire," while the fact is that he was offered that sum for the former picture alone. Mrs. Clement did not apparently know that the late James Lennox vainly offered Turner £5,000 and then a blank cheque for the "Old Féméraire."

There is little excuse for making books which simply rehearse without method or discrimination the gossip of the antechamber of art,

and this is the main resource of the 'Outline History.'

*Early Church History to the Death of Constantine.* Compiled by the late Edward Backhouse. Edited and enlarged by Charles Tyllor. London: Hamilton, Adams & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

THIS volume is in some sense a literary curiosity. Its author was a member of the Society of Friends, and a minister in the meeting, affluent, cultured, something of an artist, a diligent student of natural history, who devoted his energy through the leisure of a long life to practical charity and the elevation of the masses in Sunderland, the place of his residence. He was doubtless a most useful man and a sterling friend, and his photograph, which accompanies the volume, suggests a character of mingled energy and kindness. Unfortunately, in his sixty-seventh year, while one day occupied in painting, it was suddenly borne in upon him, after the fashion of Friends, from the Lord, that, to use his own words, "I ought to devote my leisure in my latter days to writing a portion of Church History, especially with a view of exhibiting to the Christian world, in a popular manner, the principles and practices of the Society of Friends." Under this inspiration, though utterly unequipped for the stupendous task, without even a knowledge of the classical tongues, he vigorously commenced the study of ecclesiastical history, leaving at his death, five years after his call, a considerable mass of manuscript on the primitive church. This the pardonable zeal of friends intrusted to an editor, who put it into shape, remoulded it, filled up gaps, and is responsible, as the preface informs us, for about one-half of the material of the work. It is printed in very attractive form, with numerous illustrations—chromos, etchings, and photographs—some of them from the original sketches of the author, and forms an exceedingly handsome volume.

A book thus produced is of course not a legitimate subject of serious criticism. As the title-page modestly asserts, it is merely a compilation from more or less authentic sources, with long extracts from modern writers, such as Canon Farrar, Cooper's 'Free Church,' Milman, Neander, and other authors to whom Mr. Backhouse's attention chanced to be called. Critical investigation of disputed questions is not to be looked for, and the only interest attaching to the work lies in its purpose to vindicate heretics and toleration against so-called orthodoxy and persecution. Had this been done with a special faculty of historical insight, the book might possess value in spite of the limitations under which the author worked; but this is not the case, and the reader is forced to share the regret expressed in the preface that Mr. Backhouse should have

commenced his vindication of Quakerism with the primitive church. "He knew," we are told, "the local history of the North of England well, the history of the Society of Friends perfectly; and if he had confined his labors to these subjects he would probably have produced a work which would have been accepted as an authority in that more limited field." As it stands, the book doubtless supplied to the author's declining years occupation and purpose which were sufficient reward to him.

*Tables of European History. Literature and Art from A. D. 200 to 1882; and of American History, Literature, and Art.* By John Nichol, M.A., Oxon., LL.D., Professor of English Language and Literature, University of Glasgow. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1884.

PROFESSOR NICHOL'S tables will be found very convenient and useful. They consist of five columns on the two opposite pages—foreign history, English history, English literature, foreign literature, and the arts. In the first two columns the several nations are distinguished by different colors, in lines or bars: we should suppose it might have been well to do the same with the other columns. The American tables contain two columns to a page—history, and literature and art. The several tables are not arranged to contain equal spaces of time, but cover more or less time, according as there is more or less material. Thus, the first table contains four centuries; Table V. contains from 1350 to 1425; Table XVI. only twenty-seven years, 1855 to 1882. We should think it would have been well, as the book is at any rate thin, to prefix tables of ancient history.

The special value of the tables will be found, we fancy, in the conspectus presented of the history of literature and art in their relation to general history. The tables of events are not full enough for minute reference, but give just the guide that is needed for the purpose of literary references. Of course the names and events to be selected are a matter of individual judgment, in which there is great room for difference of opinion. Turning to the period 1110 to 1150, for example, we should say that the foundation of the kingdom of Portugal, 1139, was much better worth mentioning than "Leopold of Austria in Bavaria," 1138. The order of the names is sometimes hard to understand; for example, in the first table, Constantine, Alaric, and Mahomet are given in the centuries in which they were born, not those in which they flourished; President Lincoln is put just before the date 1860, and Professor Goodwin stands before his old instructor, Professor (rather President) Felton. We notice that G. Ripley is represented as still living. Occasionally an event is given without a date, as League of Cambray,

and resignation of Victor Amadeus (called of Savoy, when it should be of Sardinia).

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E., and Arnold, T. A Catholic Dictionary: Containing some Account of the Doctrine, Discipline, Rites, Ceremonies, Councils, and Religious Orders of the Catholic Church. Catholic Publication Society. Anderson, E. L. Modern Horsemanship. A New Method of Teaching Riding and Training. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

Bestmann, H. J. Die Anfänge des Katholischen Christentums und des Islams. Nördlingen: C. H. Beck'schen Buchhandlung.

Bilfinger, F. S. The Relation of Animal Diseases to the Public Health, and their Prevention. D. Appleton & Co.

Boyden, Anna L. Echoes from Hospital and White House. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. \$1.25.

Books, Rev. Phillips. Sermons: First Series. Thirtieth thousand. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.

Clarke, Rev. J. F. The Ideas of the Apostle Paul, Translated into their Modern Equivalents. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Crane, Moses. Politics. An Introduction to the Comparative Study of Constitutional Law. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

Economic Tracts. First and Second Series. 1881-1882. Society for Political Education. \$1.

Elbon, Barbara. Bethesda. Macmillan & Co. \$1.

Elwes, R. H. M. The Chief Works of Benedict de Spinoza. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.

Fellows, H. P. Boating Trips on New England Rivers. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

Griffiths, A. The Chronicles of N. W. gate. New Edition. Scribner & Welford. \$4.50.

Haweis, H. R. My Musical Memories. Funk & Wagnalls. \$1. Paper, 25 cents.

Hayne, W. D. D. Ralph Waldo Emerson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.

Hill, H. A. Memoir of Abbott Lawrence. With an Appendix. Second Edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Jones, J. A. T. The Retrospect: a Poem in Four Cantos. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.

King, Charles. Kitty's Conquest. A novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.

Kitchen, Dr. J. M. W. Catarrh, Sore Throat, and Hoarseness. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.

Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der ostfriesischen Sprache. Part 21. Tirrel-top-Wards. Norden: H. Braams.

Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series. Vol. 45. Boston: Littell & Co.

Mann, Dr. E. C. A Manual of Psychological Medicine and Allied Nervous Diseases. Illustrated. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.

Marryat, Captain. The Pirate, and Three Cutters. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.

Martel, Charles. Military Italy. Macmillan & Co. \$3.50.

Mason, Mrs. E. R. Our Mabel: Crests upon the Waves of Thought. Chicago: Cushing, Thomas & Co.

Meyer, A. W. Critical and Exegetical Hand-Book to the Epistle to the Romans. Preface and Notes by Prof. Timothy Dwight. Funk & Wagnalls. \$3.

Molnaux, Jules. Les Deux Sœurs. Comédie en un acte. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.

Newman, John Henry. Echoes from his Oratory and Selections from his Poems. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.

Parker, Rev. J. Apostolic Life, as Revealed in the Acts of the Apostles. Vol. I. From the Ascension of Christ to the Withdrawal of Peter. Funk & Wagnalls. \$1.50.

Phillips, Wendell. His Orations, Speeches, Lectures, and Letters. With a Biographical Sketch. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.

Ploetz, Carl. Epitome of Ancient, Mediaeval, and Modern History: with Extensive Additions, by W. H. Fillingham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.

Porter, Rose. Green Pastures for the Shepherd's Lambs. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 35 cents.

Powell, G. T. Foundations and Foundation Walls, for All Classes of Buildings, Pile Driving, Building Stones and Bricks, etc. Illustrated. W. T. Comstock. \$2.

Roh, E. Complete Index to Littell's Living Age. Vol. I. Part 4. Biography: Lescure and Marie-Thérèse. Philadelphia: 1135 Pine St. \$2.

Russell, W. C. Jack's Courtship: A Sailor's Yarn of Love and Shipwreck. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.

Schaaf, Rev. P. A Religious Encyclopedia, or Dictionary of Biblical, Historical, Doctrinal, and Practical Theology. Vol. III. and last. Funk & Wagnalls. \$6.

Stories by American Authors. In 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Sumner, C. A. Golden Gate Sketches. W. B. Smith & Co. 25 cents.

Teaching of the Twelve Apostles. Edited, with a Translation, Introduction, and Notes, by Profs. Roswell D. Hitchcock and Francis Brown. Charles Scribner's Sons.

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